MAY 1952

ARMY INFORMATION DIGEST

Understanding Our Nation's Global Role

Training Devices for Combat Realism

French Reservists Train in New York

Our Armed Forces in Iceland

A Pre-War School System

Turkey—Rampart in the Middle East

The Turkish Soldier—First Class Fighter

Red China's Fighting Hordes—Part IV

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UNITY—STRENGTH—FREEDOM

Armed Forces Day—17 May 1952

ARMY
INFORMATION
DIGEST

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In This Issue:

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SYMBOLS OF UNITY. Armed Forces Day 1952 finds nearly three and one-half million servicemen and women at alert stations around the globe, giving reality to this year's watchword of "Unity—Strength—Freedom." Insignia of grades of the Army, Navy, Marine Corps and Air Force — increasingly evident wherever freedom's cause is challenged — are reproduced on pages 32-33.

UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP. More than ever before, men and women entering service today need a broad understanding of the complex relationships between all factors that make up our national security, the Army Chief of Staff states in the lead article. "The man in uniform today has need to consult continuously the man of science. And similarly the scientist must keep in close touch with the soldier who has to use these new weapons. Theory and practice — vision and reality — must be combined in the best interests of the country's security."

NATO STRONGHOLDS. The strategic importance and military potentials of Iceland and Turkey — two countries which form the terminal links in the chain of North Atlantic Treaty Organization member states — are story subjects this month. The sturdy qualities of the Turkish soldier are appraised in an eye-witness account while the history, organization and current status of the regenerated Turkish Army are reported in a separate article.

The first anniversary of the return of United States armed forces to Iceland is marked by Brigadier General E. J. McGaw, Commander of the Iceland Defense Force, in an analysis of problems peculiar to Iceland, northern anchor point of NATO defenses. Formerly Commandant of the Armed Forces Information School, General McGaw is author of "A Commander's Public Relations Role" which appeared in the March 1951 DIGEST.

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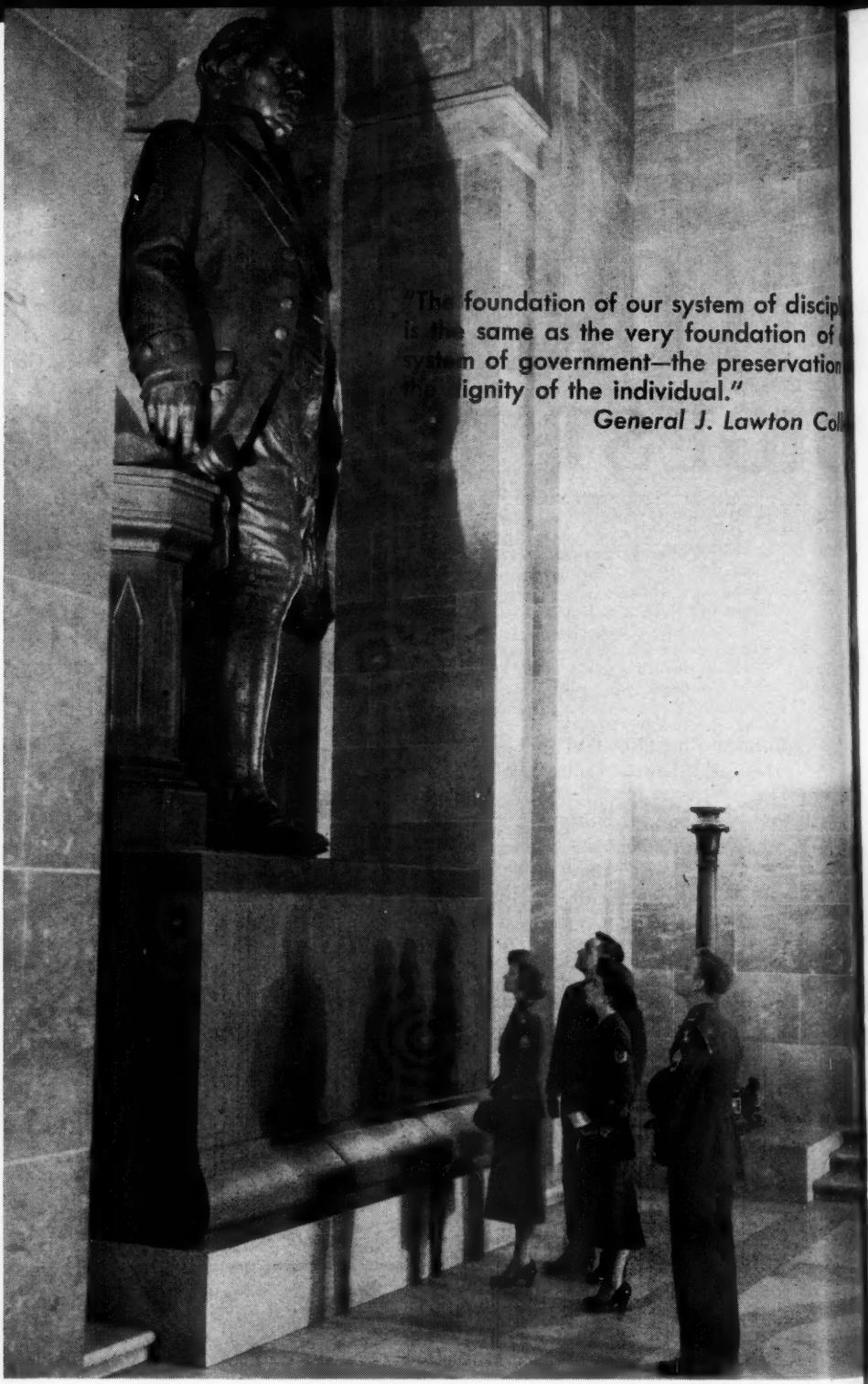
"The foundation of our system of discip
is the same as the very foundation of
system of government—the preservation
the dignity of the individual."
General J. Lawton Col

USAF Photograph

Although the United States Military Academy was established in 1802 during the administration of Thomas Jefferson, General George Washington (above) was one of the first to endorse the proposal that such an academy be founded.

UNDERSTANDING OUR NATION'S GLOBAL ROLE

General J. Lawton Collins

NEVER before in history has it been so important that the soldier have a broad understanding of the relationships between all the factors that make up our national security.

Today a man entering the service of his country needs an even broader training than ever before to understand the complex relationships between all these factors. He needs to comprehend electronics as well as men; economics as well as weapons; diplomacy as well as tactics. He needs to know these things not only because they are part of the science of war but because they are more closely related than in the past to our national security and to the survival of the entire free world.

It is only natural that as things change, the Army's tasks change. In some cases we have been required to assume new non-military responsibilities simply because we could not escape them. Such was the case at the close of World War II when the responsibility for the establishment and the administration of government in Germany, Japan, Korea, Trieste, Italy, Austria and the Ryukyus was thrust upon the Army.

These tasks involved all the complex civil functions which are normal to everyday community life. New forms of government had to be set up. Laws had to be written, enacted and administered. Normal police functions had to be re-established. Millions of people had to be fed, clothed and sheltered. Their health and sanitation measures were a constant concern. Millions of children had to be put back in school—and some re-educated—under our supervision. In Germany alone, the Army Youth Assistance Program aided in rehabilitating almost a million youngsters. Hundreds of thousands of displaced persons and prisoners of war had to be repatriated. Public utilities had to be rebuilt. Newspapers and radio stations had to be reorganized and recreational facilities revived.

From an address at Founders' Day ceremonies, United States Military Academy, 16 March 1952.

While the Army would like to have escaped some of these responsibilities and while we felt that they should be turned over to civil authority as soon as possible, nevertheless they became our problems; and it was several years following World War II before we could concentrate on our military jobs alone in many areas. And through it all, officers of the Army needed a wide knowledge of issues well outside the military field; they had not only to guard and further the interests of our Nation but they had to recognize the everyday needs of a conquered people as well.

As some semblance of stability returned to the post-war world, we were denied the firm basis of peace for which all of us so fervently hoped. We were denied this because a new aggressor, backed by the largest army in the world, was, and still is, pursuing imperialist expansion even beyond that of past emperors, tsars or kaisers.

This new menace is using every device known to man to gain his aggressive ends—propaganda, subversion, infiltration and, where advantageous, the barbarous use of satellite military force. As a result, war-torn nations have been strangled in their efforts to regain political and economic stability, and many free nations have been forced to spend beyond their means to bolster their defenses and guard their freedoms.

It was clear then, in the post-war world, that such an unprecedented challenge required unprecedented effort to meet it. And the scope of that effort requires unprecedented understanding on the part of young men—particularly young officers—entering the service of their country.

The program of the American people is designed to prevent the catastrophe of another world war. However, war could be thrust upon us, and we must be prepared to win it with all the resources that combined forethought and superior science can muster. All of our preparations are defensive ones to provide mutual security through common effort.

The American program for peace encompasses, first, active participation in the United Nations; second, regional security arrangements within the framework of the United Nations—like the North Atlantic Treaty Organization and the Organization of American States; third, military assistance programs by which we furnish military aid to increase the strength of friendly nations and thus strengthen the defenses of the free world; fourth, economic assistance programs to aid certain friendly nations to stand on their own feet in areas where human welfare is

the first essential in the struggle against Communism; fifth, an information program, including the Voice of America, to tell the people of the world the story of freedom; and sixth, the rebuilding of our own Armed Forces.

This program is so vast that it challenges the imagination and wisdom of all of us. Upon it rests the hopes of the world. We must make it work! Military men do not direct this program, but are inescapably involved in its practical operations.

Out of the chaos of World War II rose the concept of the United Nations. It envisaged the creation of a world instrument capable at least of giving to all its members security against aggression. Of course, it is imperfect, as all human creations are, but still there is no better instrument at hand for preventing another world war. The world has again been rent by the challenge of a counterfeit philosophy which purports to offer freedom but which is really based upon slavery and the complete subjugation of the individual to the state. The free world, holding the dignity of the individual to be supreme and seeing the gulf widen, found it necessary to meet the challenge by adopting additional security measures.

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization is one of these measures. In it lies a tangible assurance of collective strength which can deter an aggressor from launching war. The security of Western Europe is vital to the security of the United States, and the defense of it is, in effect, a defense of the United States—a factor which is often overlooked. The importance of the productive capacity of Western Europe should not be underestimated. If Western Europe falls under Communist domination, the free world will lose the industrial efforts and scientific skills of more than two hundred million people. The coal and steel of the Ruhr, the Saar and the Lille areas would be lost and the economic scales might be tipped against us.

The free world now outproduces the Communist nations approximately three to one. But if Western Europe were lost, Soviet productive capacity would exceed that of the free world. These are important facts to the soldier as well as to the economist, and he must be the first to recognize that the true foundation of modern armed strength is great industrial capacity. It is an immutable relationship which the young officer today must learn quickly.

During the past ten years, I have had to make many trips to various parts of the globe. I never returned to the United States without a deeper impression that an empty stomach is

more likely to cause conflict than a loaded rifle and is even more likely to turn despairing people to Communism.

Greece is an example of the necessity for a close relationship between our military and economic programs. Here was a country trying to rebuild its economy in the very shadow of the Iron Curtain without the military strength to preserve that economy. Here is a country to which the world can look for an example of the effectiveness of co-ordinated military and economic aid in enabling free nations to withstand aggression.

Prior to our entering the picture, the Greeks could not cope with the guerrillas. The farmers of Greece could not gather their crops and the Greek people were not getting enough to eat because as soon as the grain was ready for harvest, the guerrillas would swoop down from their mountain strongholds and seize or destroy it.

The Greek government did not have the means to strengthen its armed forces so that they could put an end to the guerrilla menace. Yet without adequate military security the people of Greece could not produce either the crops or the goods which would in turn produce the revenues necessary to maintain the troops. Thus a vicious circle was established which could result only in those chaotic economic conditions which are so favorable to the spread of Communism.

Our combined economic and military missions finally brought an end to these conditions. The Greek people, with our military and economic assistance, rose as with their ancient might, defeated the guerrillas and then set about solving their internal problems unhampered by the constant menace of active Communist military forces within their very borders.

These results could not have been achieved if our American representatives, military and civilian alike, had not shown good judgment, restraint, patience and a thorough understanding not only of Greek sensibilities but of the dovetailed relationships between military and economic aid.

Somewhat similar conditions existed in Turkey, although here the threat of Soviet armies was closer at hand. Again our purpose was to assist in creating efficient, well-balanced modern armed forces with the capability of resisting aggression, without imposing an unbearable drain on the Turkish economy. Here, too, our American personnel had to develop a broad understanding of the intricacies of Turkish life and customs, and an appreciation of the fine balance between military requirements and economic capabilities.

Those Americans working for our Government abroad—both military and civilian—are invaluable in assisting us to gain an insight into the cultures of other peoples and they into ours; and they are fostering an ever-growing mutual understanding between Americans and all freedom-loving peoples.

Today, almost half of our forces are overseas and it has never been more necessary that the comportment of every man in uniform be above reproach. I know it may seem trite to mention the importance of every officer and soldier overseas being an Ambassador of Good Will for his country, but nevertheless it is true. More damage to the cause of freedom could be done by one mistake of judgment on our part than by a thousand propaganda acts or threatening gestures by those who deliberately planned them.

Taken together, all aspects of our national security are unavoidably intricate but the rebuilding of our own Armed Forces is a vastly complex problem by itself. We are on the threshold of new developments that challenge the imagination and ingenuity of the most optimistic planners. Guided missiles, atomic weapons, jet aircraft, powerful new ammunitions and many other advances are all creating a new framework of defense in which the technical sciences play a greater role than ever before.

The man in uniform today has need to consult continuously the man of science. And similarly the scientist must keep in close touch with the soldier who has to use these new weapons. Theory and practice—vision and reality—must be combined in the best interests of the country's security.

The military man must satisfy himself that a new weapon will do the job in the manner necessary without an inordinate expenditure of the Nation's resources, including productive man-hours, raw materials and sheer dollar cost. On the other hand, a new weapon or concept should not be either accepted or rejected solely on a theoretical basis without a careful examination of its battlefield potential through the eyes of experienced soldiers.

In all of this there is a danger that we may become so enthralled by machines and weapons systems, that we will lose sight of the fact that the man—the individual soldier—is the supreme element in combat. That is the reason why the foundation of our system of discipline is the same as the very foundation of our system of government—the preservation of the dignity of the individual.

Our officer corps is dedicated to the belief that our high

standards of character and integrity must be maintained. We recognize, honor and preserve the dignity and identity of the humblest soldier. The most fundamental relationship in the Army is that which exists between the officer and the men who are entrusted to his care. We have perhaps the most democratic Army in the world. But its performance on the battlefields of Korea has clearly shown that it does not lack discipline. The fact that our discipline is a reasonable and not a rigid thing accounts largely for the magnificent performance of our Army because it does not dull the resourcefulness and initiative of the individual soldier.

These then are some of the varied relationships which an officer today must know. These complex problems are indeed a new and greater challenge to the young officer. They require of him a keener imagination, a more vigorous mentality and a broader understanding than in the past.

But above all else, he must bring to the solution of these problems the highest standards of character and integrity. While machines and arms may be multiplied and changed, these essential human qualities remain changeless and priceless. However much we treasure technical knowledge, tactical skill, and academic excellence, our high standards of character and integrity are our most sacred heritage. By maintaining these standards we can do our part in carrying forth our Nation's program for security and peace.

A PRE-WAR SCHOOL SYSTEM

LIEUTENANT GENERAL IDWAL H. EDWARDS

AVOIDANCE of traditionalism, of rigidity of thought and doctrine, of standardization of instruction and of the provision of dogmatic answers to the problems of the future may sound like a negative approach to a positive and constructive program. But those were some of the basic and forward-looking policies announced by the late General Muir S. Fairchild when he became the first Commanding General of the Air University in March 1946.

Explaining these fundamental principles further, General Fairchild told members of the first classes at the University that "we must guard rigorously against the danger of looking backward too much, against the feeling that we have learned the answers to future war. We must be on guard against building up resistance to change, against taking the easy course of accepting answers from the past instead of the infinitely difficult course of digging them out of the future. This is not a post-war school system—it is a pre-war school!"

With this basic philosophy, the Air University started a new concept of military education—a concept designed to fulfill the need for a unified and integrated educational program for officers of the United States Air Force. All of the schools of the Air Force, except training schools, are assigned to the Air University, thus centralizing this responsibility in one headquarters. All courses are integrated toward the single aim of developing leadership for the Air Force of the future.

Headquarters of the Air University is located at Maxwell Air Force Base, Montgomery, Alabama, and is organized along the lines of a typical major command of the Air Force. The responsibility and the authority of the Commanding General are exercised through the Deputy Commanding General who in turn is assisted by a Director of Education and a Director of Ad-

LIEUTENANT GENERAL IDWAL H. EDWARDS, USAF, is Commanding General of the Air University.

ministration. A Board of Visitors comprising twelve outstanding educators visits the University at least once a year, reports on the program and accomplishments to the Chief of Staff, United States Air Force, and also acts as an advisory group on the general academic policies and program.

The Air University is also closely linked to national institutions of higher learning throughout the country. Guest lecturers, chosen for their pre-eminence in their specialized fields, bring their knowledge and experience. A co-operative arrangement of fellowships and professorships has been worked out with the Board of Control for Southern Regional Education by which the Air University and civilian colleges are teaming together in mutually beneficial educational projects.

Significant in the Air University system is the fact that the Commanding General exercises centralized control over the various activities which are component parts of the University but which in geographical location are widely distributed. Close to Maxwell Air Force Base is Gunter Air Force Base. Other University units are at Randolph Air Force Base, San Antonio, Texas, and at Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Dayton, Ohio.

Air War College. The Air War College at Maxwell Air Force Base is the senior general service school of the Air University system and trains selected officers for high command and staff duty with large Air Force units. Some officers of the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, Royal Canadian Air Force, Royal Air Force and representatives of the United States State Department also participate in its program.

Its curriculum is designed to inculcate in its students an awareness of the importance of air power in support of our international policies and to improve professional competence.

In this connection a fundamental policy of the Air University is complete education as contrasted to specialized education. This follows a belief that an Air Force officer should be identified by his cultural background and technical proficiency as well as by his professional ability.

Air Force functions are global in nature as well as in extent. For this reason, the Air War College seeks to impart substantial knowledge of diplomacy and international relations to its students. In other words, the Air Force has broadened its education to a global scale to include learning far beyond that encompassed in technical and scientific fields alone.

Maximum student participation is encouraged in seminar discussions, attendance at lectures and the reading of required

bibliographies—all designed to bring out individual initiative and analytical reasoning. There are no "school solutions" to the problems presented; students arrive at conclusions through their own logical deductions. Each is expected to conduct a comprehensive study and present a thesis on some subject of his own choosing. Seminars also develop, present and support solutions to particular problems.

The Evaluation Staff of the Air War College analyzes and assesses Air Force planning, employment of weapons and other activities. In these studies it develops Air Force doctrine to be used in the schools and in carrying out Air Force missions of all types. It serves as a fountainhead for much Air Force policy in the design and employment of air forces in modern warfare.

Air Command and Staff School. The most extensive program of resident instruction is conducted in two general courses by the Air Command and Staff School, also at Maxwell.

A Field Officers' Course emphasizes duties of commanders and staffs at group and wing levels and of staff officers at the numbered Air Force level. A Squadron Officer Course is designed for commanders at squadron level and for staff officers at squadron and group levels.

Seven specialized staff courses are offered in addition to the general courses. They are for logistics, electronics communications, and intelligence staff officers, for comptrollers, judge advocates general, inspectors and academic instructors. The inspector and academic instructor courses are open to airmen and Air Force civilian employees as well as to officers.

School of Aviation Medicine. The Air Force School of Aviation Medicine, with headquarters at Randolph Air Force Base and a branch at Gunter Air Force Base, instructs all flight surgeons for the Air Force, all flight nurses for the Air Force and Navy, and other technicians of the Air Force medical team. Certain courses are open to airmen as well. Students have come to this School from thirty-one nations throughout the world.

Courses are offered for Medical Service Corps officers, medical laboratory technicians, medical administrative supervisors, preventive medicine supervisors, veterinary apprentices, medical registrars, and hospital adjutants. Among the subjects emphasized are medical and organization supply, transportation, food service and inspection.

Instruction is only part of the School's mission. The School of Aviation Medicine conducts an extensive and continuing research program in aviation medicine. Through this it seeks

methods of prevention and cure of ailments brought about by man's invasion of the air and of spaces farther and farther from the earth and at increasingly higher speeds. Research into the selection standards for flying personnel, aiding and improving innate abilities for flight, improvement of flight equipment, and air evacuation procedures are additional fields.

Institute of Technology. The United States Air Force Institute of Technology at Wright-Patterson Air Force Base conducts an officer education program designed to meet technical and scientific requirements of the Air Force. Its program is carried on in resident classrooms and laboratories at Wright-Patterson, at civilian colleges and universities throughout the United States and within the working organizations of many American industries. The faculty, which is two-thirds civilian, represents a wide variety of experience in industry, science and education. These authorities are augmented by military and civilian guest lecturers.

The Institute's in-residence program embodies colleges of engineering sciences and industrial administration. Officer students also attend seventy-five participating civilian institutions on both graduate and undergraduate levels. In addition, the Institute conducts a training-in-industry program in which more than sixty industries are co-operating.

Graduate training is emphasized for the development of high level professional military personnel. This program includes advanced instruction at civilian institutions in such fields as nuclear physics, engineering, public administration, psychology, mechanical engineering and the German, Russian and French languages. Thus the Institute is the center of advanced technical and scientific education in the Air Force.

Air Force ROTC Training. Beginning in August, 1952, responsibility for operating the Air Force Reserve Officers' Training Corps with its more than 110,000 students in 187 colleges and universities in the United States, Hawaii and Puerto Rico will be transferred from Continental Air Command to the Air University, thus bringing under one command the complementary missions of Air University and Air Force ROTC. Continental Air Force will continue to administer activities of Air Force Reserve personnel, including Air Force ROTC graduates who are commissioned in the Air Force Reserve.

Non-Air Force Service Schools. Assistance in teaching Air Force doctrine and subjects pertaining to air power in more than fifty non-Air Force service schools in the United

States, Canada and England is another function of the Air University. In these schools, which are grouped into seven categories depending on their mission and relationship to the Air Force, the Air University has responsibility for one or more of the following functions: personnel selection assignment, reassignment and replacement; instructional advice and assistance; and records administration.

The 3894th School Squadron at Maxwell Air Force Base carries out this responsibility by administering and advising Air Force members of the staffs, faculties and student bodies in various service schools outside the Air Force. The Squadron is the liaison agency through which education in Air Force subjects is made available to members of other military branches. It also is the agency through which knowledge of new methods and techniques being taught by the other services flows back to the Air University and to the Air Force. By this system, the Air Force joins the other services in exchanging professional knowledge throughout the entire Defense Establishment.

Extension Course Institute. In still another field, the United States Air Force Extension Course Institute at Gunter Air Force Base administers all correspondence courses for the Air Force. These are available to members of the Regular Air Force, the Air Force Reserve and the Air National Guard. Some courses are open to civilians also. Enrollment is by application through regular channels. More than forty-three thousand students in all parts of the world are now receiving instruction.

Air University Library. The Air University Library at Maxwell Air Force Base provides library service for both the University and Department of the Air Force. It has a growing collection of books and bound magazines, a comprehensive reference division and thousands of classified documents.

Research Studies Institute. Supplementing the source material of the Library, the Air University Research Studies Institute (also at Maxwell) conducts study and research for the Air Force through its Historical and Documentary Research Divisions and its Arctic-Desert-Tropic Information Center.

The Historical Division, in its Archives and Historical Studies branches, collects and preserves historical records and prepares and publishes histories and monographs to preserve an objective, comprehensive, accurate and unbiased record of the Air Force. It prepares special studies and performs research for the benefit of the Department of Defense and other Government agencies.

This Division is preparing a seven-volume history, *The Army Air Forces in World War II*, of which four volumes have been completed, and is working on an extensive program of monographs on Air Force subjects.

The Documentary Research Division studies documents of interest to the Air Force and disseminates this information in pamphlet form for use by Air University schools and other Air Force agencies. The Division also provides intellectual and scholastic leadership in developing abilities of students who seek professional guidance. It works closely with the colleges of the Air University and maintains close contact with historical associations, learned societies and other sources of information.

The Arctic-Desert-Tropic Information Center conducts research and collects information of value to Air Force operations in these diverse regions, evaluates it and disseminates it by bulletins, manuals and lectures throughout the Air Force.

Human Resources Research Institute. Additional research on the human factor in Air Force planning and operations is conducted by the Human Resources Research Institute, located at Maxwell.

The Institute has been assigned major study responsibilities in the fields of psychological warfare, intelligence, manpower and military management. Also, because of its association with the Air University, the Institute has been given the mission of research on officer education and career guidance.

Increasing demands stemming from the conflict in Korea have caused the Institute to organize two oversea detachments—one in Europe and one in the Far East. Civilian research agencies participate in many of the Institute's projects.

Throughout the Air University, the objectives first laid down by General Fairchild have not changed in substance in the intervening years. The fields of operation have broadened; procedures have been improved; student loads have expanded; but the mission of extensive and co-ordinated education facilities for senior Air Force personnel remains. Concentrating on its educational functions and unhampered by operational responsibilities, the Air University and its component institutions can put forth maximum effort at all times toward producing the highest type of professional planners and leaders for the Air Force of tomorrow. It is, indeed, a pre-war school system, kept up to date to meet changing and increasing demands for education in the Air Force.

FRENCH RESERVISTS TRAIN IN NEW YORK

MAJOR JOHN C. NEFF

FRENCH officers and enlisted personnel of all grades, including France's equivalent of Wacs and nurses, who hold reserve appointments in the land, sea and air forces of that country are able to continue and broaden their military skills in America although an ocean separates them from their home soil. A group of French nationals temporarily residing in the metropolitan area of New York City are enrolled as students in the Refresher School for French Reservists conducted by the 77th Infantry Division of the United States Army's Organized Reserve Corps.

All are participating voluntarily; they may be present at scheduled meetings or not, according to their own wishes, and they may withdraw from the course altogether if they desire. No compensation is provided for their efforts by either the French or United States Governments. Even those who took part in field training last summer did so without reimbursement.

Nevertheless their numbers continue to grow in this organization which has no parallel anywhere in the Western world—nor in recorded history, for that matter. Although military cooperation between allied nations is taken for granted as essential for victory in wartime, who has ever heard of organized cooperation—detailed, extensive—between volunteer reservists of friendly nations *in peace time?*

Shortly after World War II a French Army officer and a United States Army Reserve officer met in New York City to discuss the feasibility of providing military training for French reservists living in this country. The idea was new and revolutionary yet it seemed eminently practical. A request that such training be undertaken was forwarded to the Department of the Army for a decision. But it was not until the establishment of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization that the program was finally approved. Military instruction of French reservists was

MAJOR JOHN C. NEFF, USAR, is Officer in Charge of the New York City Refresher School for French Reservists.

French officers analyze a field problem being conducted by units of the U. S. 77th Infantry Division. U. S. Army Photograph

An American Army pilot orients French nationals undergoing military training at Camp Drum, New York. U. S. Army Photograph

sanctioned as an adjunct to the training given regular components of the French armed forces under provisions of the North Atlantic Treaty.

Screening of the first applicants was completed in late April 1951. At that time the Secretary of the Army issued a directive permitting French reservists to be attached by name to one United States Army Organized Reserve Corps unit for training. Logically the task was assigned to an ORC unit in the area with the largest concentration of French reservists resident in this country. New York City, with a normally large Gallic colony now greatly increased by the presence of the United Nations headquarters, was chosen as the site for the School. The conduct of the program was charged to the 77th Division which is located in New York City and whose commander, Major General Julius Ochs Adler, had initiated the original request for the program.

Association of the 77th Division with the French is by no means new. Six months after its original activation in 1917 at Camp Upton, Long Island, the Division sailed for France where it fought with distinction in the Baccarat, Oise-Aisne, Aisne-Marne and Meuse-Argonne campaigns. These actions earned the Division many accolades from the French and other Allied high commands. Indeed, the shoulder patch of the 77th is itself of French origin in theme, representing one of France's gifts to the United States—the famed Statue of Liberty which overlooks the approach to New York harbor.

The Refresher School offers French students progressive training in the organization and functions of the United States Defense Establishment with particular emphasis on the Army infantry division. To a lesser extent, the Navy and Air Force are also studied. Courses are designed to equip the reservists with a working knowledge of military organization in the United States, staff procedures, techniques, materiel and systems of logistics. So trained, the French would form a ready reserve available for liaison duties with American units co-operating with French forces anywhere in the world.

All the students speak, read and write English—most with complete fluency. A number of them gained experience in World War II as liaison officers or interpreters with United States forces ranging from theater to regimental-size groups. Others served with British forces in Europe during the fighting in France, in Africa and the vast Pacific areas. Some marched with General Leclerc on the historic 1500-mile trek across the desert from French Equatorial Africa to Tripoli to join General Mont-

gomery's Eighth Army. Also included are veterans of combat in Italy, Syria, Morocco, Indo-China, Burma and Norway. Some were prisoners of the Nazis while others were active in Resistance movements within France itself.

Thus they bring to the School an immense wealth of military experience, including an intimate knowledge of guerrilla warfare. And while they are primarily students seeking broader insight into the ramifications of global military co-operation, actually they are themselves able to impart valuable information to United States personnel who work with them at the School. Aside from instruction provided by the 77th Division staff, the curriculum also includes specialized courses prescribed by the French Ministry of National Defense and given by the French members of the group.

The French reservist students come from all walks of life. Experts in the fields of export-import trade, banking, accounting, international law, diplomacy, agriculture, petroleum, teaching, nursing, writing and art are among those on the rolls. Their ages range from twenty to sixty and their spirit—individually and collectively—is youthful and enthusiastic.

Being Frenchmen, they are highly conscious that the way of life not only of their homeland but of the entire Western world is in jeopardy from the encroachment of foreign ideologies. Imbued with a keen awareness of France's proud role in developing Western European civilization, these men and women do not pause to consider personal sacrifices. They recognize the opportunity to prepare themselves better for the defense of freedom.

Under tutelage of United States Army Reserve officers, a group of French reservists studies a tank firing problem. U. S. Army Photograph

The Refresher School was formally opened in May 1951. Classes are conducted at the headquarters of the 77th Division on the first and third Wednesdays of each month from 1900 to 2100 hours. Conferences are held mostly in English but from time to time lectures on special topics are given in French. A summary of each lecture and a French-English glossary of military terminology used during the conference is provided each student.

Courses include such subjects as organization of the United States and French Defense Establishments, organization and operation of the general and special staff divisions of both military forces as well as their tactics and techniques. Current classes are taking up the study of administrative orders, intelligence reports, operations orders and various annexes. Map problems are conducted to enlarge on lecture topics. Concurrent training includes courtesies and customs of the two services and the French-English equivalents of pertinent military words, phrases, expressions and map symbols.

During its annual two-week training tour at Camp Drum, New York, in August 1951 the 77th Division was joined by ten of the French reservist students, marking one of the first instances that reservists of an allied nation participated with American forces in field training during peacetime.

After one week of observing the operation of the Division in the field, the group was divided into teams of two men each. These were attached to various echelons of the command for field exercises. During one infantry tactical problem, for example, teams accompanied scouts, jeep messengers, Aggressor forces, forward observers and small unit commanders. In this way they witnessed more phases of operation than otherwise would have been possible. Some remarked that they actually saw more units in action than during their wartime experience since they were at liberty to move about more freely.

With the School now in full operation, French nationals in this country and the French Government itself—along with other member states of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization —are watching with keen interest the program being conducted by the 77th Division. As its achievements become more widely appreciated, the pioneer work of the School for French Reservists becomes a harbinger of the benefits to be realized by international military co-operation.

TRAINING DEVICES FOR COMBAT REALISM

CAPTAIN T. B. HALEY

THE approach officer had talked the submarine in from its initial contact with the enemy convoy until now the craft was within striking distance. The tenseness of the attack party in the conning tower was reflected in the skipper's voice—

"Up scope! Bearing—. Mark." The skipper flipped the periscope handles up into their stowed position, and the scope started down into its well.

"Range two one double oh," the radar operator reported.

Another officer, at the torpedo data computer, cut in, "Target has zigged right. Angle on the bow?"

"Didn't look like a zig," the captain replied. "Angle on the bow, starboard fifty."

Now the plotting officer broke in with, "Confirm the zig. Estimate new target course two five zero."

The captain thought for a short moment, and then ordered, "Use course two five zero. Left full rudder, port stop. Starboard ahead standard. Steady on course zero seven zero."

Telephone talker: "Tubes forward reports all bow tubes ready to shoot. Outer doors are open. Depth set six feet. Speed high. Gyros matching in automatic."

Captain: "Very well, tubes forward."

Helmsman: "Steady on course zero seven zero."

Captain: "Very well, all ahead one third. Tubes forward, stand by to shoot."

Talker: "Tubes forward, stand by to shoot."

Captain (to the assistant torpedo data computer operator): "Three fish spread aft-forward, six hundred foot target, one hundred percent spread. Stand by tubes one, two, three." Then general instructions: "Check bearing this observation. If there is no zig, commence shooting when TDC is set. Up scope. Bearing. Mark." Clack go the periscope handles; down goes the scope. "No apparent change. All ahead standard."

CAPTAIN T. B. HALEY, USN, is Commanding Officer and Director, Special Devices Center, Sands Point, New York.

Radar operator: "Range one seven five zero."

Torpedo data computer: "Set."

Assistant torpedo data computer: "Generating. —Light. —Fire one." Then at eight-second intervals, "Fire two. Fire three."

Captain: "Take her deep! Use negative."

Here the instructor broke in with, "Stop the problem; move out here for the critique."

This submarine action happened not on the high seas but on dry land in a training device housed in a three-story building. Developed by the Special Devices Center at Sands Point, Long Island, the Submarine Attack Teacher is the most elaborate and expensive of the hundreds of training devices produced by the Center. Naval stations at Mare Island, California, and New London, Connecticut, use the trainer to save time, materiel and manpower. Similar sea training would require many man-hours in traveling to a maneuver area, one or two submarines, at least two destroyers and about seven hundred and fifty officers and men including crews and base and repair personnel. The teacher device, however, requires only one maintenance engineer and four enlisted men to provide the same instruction. No time is lost in travel, and equipment and personnel requirements are reduced materially.

The complete teacher installation includes classrooms, a diving trainer and torpedo rooms on the first floor; a fully equipped conning tower and bridge on the second floor; and on the third floor a fifty-eight by thirty-five foot "sea" which is co-ordinated with the periscope to give a sixteen thousand by seven thousand yard optical range. Also on this floor are the complicated electronic controls for operating the teacher. Models mounted on controlled cars simulate various types of ships traveling at proportionate speeds and are maneuvered by the instructor. To the skipper at the conning tower these ships, complete with bow waves and wakes, duplicate the scenes he would see through the periscope of a submarine at sea. Even the curvature of the earth is apparent, so that the model ships at a distance have a hull-down appearance.

This elaborate installation contrasts with the Pocket Blinker, a cardboard gadget for practice in sending and receiving International Morse Code messages. This device costs less than a cent and has been produced by the thousands for novice signalmen. When squeezed the card gives the appearance of a blinker signal; when the pressure is released the horizontal light strips

are opaqued out. Alternating pressures and releases of varying time lengths duplicate the Morse Code light signals.

Large or small, devices developed at the Center are designed to simulate actual operational or combat situations. They permit practice and training in synthetic combat problems as realistically as possible and thus develop the ability of trainees to handle equipment swiftly and accurately under the strain of battle. They facilitate thorough and repeated practice which would be prohibitive in cost with actual field equipment.

Although models of equipment and weapons have been used in instruction for many years, the development of special devices for synthetic training received considerable impetus before and during World War II. Germany, restricted by the Treaty of Versailles, was particularly hampered in her clandestine training of combat air crews. Besides instructing potential pilots in motorless gliders, the Germans developed special mock-ups to train air crews without leaving the ground. Later, during the Battle of Britain, the hard-pressed Royal Air Force out of sheer necessity made great progress in the development of training devices. British training planes were so vulnerable to German air attack that frequently crews were shot down before their training had progressed to the point where they could perform operational missions. Perforce, the British had to do much of their training synthetically—on the ground.

In 1941 the United States Navy Bureau of Aeronautics became interested in the technique. Although handicapped initially by a lack of funds, a Special Devices Desk was set up in the Bureau in April 1941, and late in 1942 the program was raised to division level. In May 1945 the division was made part of the Office of Research and Inventions which later became the Office of Naval Research. By 1945 the activity had outgrown its Washington plant and moved to Sands Point, Long Island. Public Law 564—81st Congress authorized the permanent organization of the Special Devices Center and gave it its present name.

By the end of World War II the Center had processed nearly fifteen hundred separate projects for synthetic training devices, 40 percent of which proved practical; and nearly three million items had been manufactured and distributed to various training agencies of the Navy. The scope of the development work expanded enormously to include such diversified phases of training as armament, navigation and seamanship, synthetic warfare problems on a strategic scale, electronics, flight train-

ing and the use of computers. In the post-war period the Center has been able to devote more time to fundamental research into the relationship between man and the machines he must operate in a modern world.

Operating within the scope of authority of the Chief of Naval Research, the Special Devices Center seeks to improve the effectiveness of naval training by providing training devices, teaching aids and training systems; by studying and recommending training techniques; and by conducting research and development in support of this mission. It also undertakes such additional research and development as the Chief of Naval Research considers appropriate.

The Center not only designs and produces training devices; it also acts as a co-ordinating agency on training equipment and serves as a clearing house for information in this field. The research and development work is carried on in the Center's own laboratories at Sands Point and through contracts with universities, private industry, other research groups and through field testing and evaluation of equipment.

In March 1950 the Army and Navy concluded an agreement providing for Army participation in the activities of the Special Devices Center. In October 1951 an Army Participation Group, comprising twelve officers and thirteen civilians, was set up at the Center. The Army Participation Group is a liaison office established by the Office, Chief of Army Field Forces through which matters pertaining to synthetic training devices of Army interest are funneled. The Army thus utilizes the Center facilities for research, development and production of training aids without having to establish a separate installation for this purpose. This is in keeping with Department of Defense policy of assigning single-service responsibility for activities which are of common interest to two or more services.

Units and individuals are encouraged to send requests for needed training aids or for improvements in existing devices, through channels to the Office, Chief of Army Field Forces at Fort Monroe, Virginia. Officers of OCAFF, both at Fort Monroe and at the Special Devices Center, study and evaluate the suggestions and make preliminary estimates of costs, feasibility of production and production time. If approved for Army training, OCAFF requests the Department of the Army to establish projects for development of prototypes.

After completion of a pilot model training aid at the Center, it is sent to the field agencies concerned for testing. If accepted

by them and approved by OCAFF, the aid will be procured in quantity by one of the technical services. Completed devices may be issued directly to using agencies or distributed through the training aids centers and sub-centers. (See "Training Aids for the Asking," April 1952 DIGEST.) Utilization of the training devices is monitored by OCAFF and the Special Devices Center. Lists of available items are distributed to all Army training aids centers and sub-centers and as new items are developed they are added to the lists as soon as standardized.

By the end of 1951 the Army Participation Group had processed fifty-four projects of which nine have passed through the research and development stage and have been put in production for the National Guard. Distribution of models of .30-caliber carbines, machine guns and rifles to National Guard units for armory training throughout the country began in November 1951. Special electronic devices for indoor gunnery training have been distributed to National Guard antiaircraft artillery automatic weapons units. Models of mortars and bazookas will soon be available for issue.

These National Guard weapons models are of the cutaway type and may be assembled and disassembled without special tools. The models, built on a 2:1 scale, use plastic dummy bullets or projectiles. Other projects, still in the research and development stage, range from helicopter flight trainers to evaluation studies of existing Army training equipment from the psychological and human engineering aspects.

For the accomplishment of its distinctive mission, the Center is divided into five operating divisions—Engineering Research and Development, the largest; Military Requirements, an evaluating agency; Installation and Field Services, which assists using organizations in setting up and maintaining special devices; Contracts, responsible for industrial orders; and Human Engineering.

Training devices are expressly designed to permit the trainee to perform in practice the same operations required on the weapon or machine in combat; thus top skills are taught quickly and inexpensively. Occasionally, it has been found by researchers designing Navy training equipment that the trainees simply cannot achieve a satisfactory level of skill. When that happens the Center re-examines the operational equipment for which the trainer is being developed and frequently discovers that the equipment itself is poorly designed. Usually the item is redesigned to permit better human utiliza-

tion. Only when that has been done can an adequate training device be built.

Not all the ideas developed by the Center are as spectacular as the Submarine Attack Teacher nor as simple as the Pocket Blinker but each has a special value in its own field. Although the stars were the first navigational devices and modern inventions have not out-dated them, the constellations are not visible in daylight and the nights are not always clear. The Special Devices Center therefore developed the Star Recognition Trainer, sometimes known as the "Poor Man's Hayden Planetarium." Basically this trainer is a large portable umbrella with a projector which transfers images of various star formations and constellations onto the concave surface of the umbrella. It offers the student navigator a realistic workout—day and night, fair weather or foul.

Twenty-eight tons of equipment crowded into four rooms make up the Maneuvering Tactics Trainer which can accommodate up to sixty student officers at one time. From controls on a bridge mock-up, officers maneuver their "ships," which show up as pips of light on a large screen. They thus learn routine maneuvers, tactical operations, battle procedures and other key naval operations.

Similarly the war-proved, peace-improved Operational Flight Trainers help aircrews develop their skills without endangering lives, without expensive gasoline consumption and plane maintenance, without loss of precious training time in bad weather and without leaving the ground. Here aircrews can perform all flight duties just as though they were aloft while an instructor checks every move on a second set of repeating instruments. Specific flight problems can be set up on the trainer for solution by the crew. Performance is evaluated with accuracy as mistakes are quickly seen and analyzed.

Other devices developed by the Center include several types of gunnery training sights, a night fighter trainer, aerial torpedo attack trainer, flight engineer's panels, recognition slide sets and many types of instructional recordings. For certain types of training, sound recordings simulate the signals emitted by sonobuoys. Other recordings describing functioning, disassembly and reassembly serve as commentaries on the cutaway models. Still others provide a complete check-out for a pilot in a cockpit, and a man at a flight engineer's panel can follow the entire procedure by recordings. There are also recordings of shipboard calls and commands for familiarization training.

A device still under development and of special interest to ground troops is the Ground Combat Assessor intended to test the efficiency of small groups of combat troops. It will consist of a number of silhouettes and standard rifle range targets laid out on a course fifteen hundred feet long and five hundred feet wide. Some of the silhouettes move laterally and all targets can be swung backward from a fully exposed to a concealed position. The unique feature of the Assessor is that the targets are connected to a control console which picks up and records hits sustained by the targets up to a rate of nine hundred per minute.

At the control console, targets can be either exposed for a predetermined brief period or until they sustain their first hit. All hits are recorded electronically. By connecting four or five consoles and their twenty to twenty-five targets and silhouettes, a mock combat course is created, providing an accurate record of effective fire power by individuals and groups.

Switchboard Operator Trainers, another project sponsored by the Army, will be used to teach telephone switchboard operators how to handle heavy traffic efficiently.

Occasionally equipment developed at the Special Devices Center finds its way into civilian use. Card Raters, a sort of mechanical Doctor I.Q., have been used throughout the Navy as training aids. The raters can be used for any subject reducible to question form. Cards appear one at a time and present a multiple-choice question to the operator; as he punches out his answers to the questions the rater visually scores his results. Raters, albeit with more entertaining sets of questions, have found their way into many places of public entertainment—amusement parks, theater lobbies and the like.

From 1944 to 1946, the Center developed with the Reeves Instrument Company an electro-mechanical colossus known as REAC—the Reeves Electronic Analog Computer—which has attained wide use in the automotive, aviation and electrical industries. With the aid of REAC an aircraft design can be pre-tested for flight performance and characteristics *before* construction of a prototype model. The device also is useful in solving complicated mathematical problems which would require a prohibitive length of time for manual calculation.

Work of the Center in "human engineering" has been particularly rewarding and this factor is an element in almost every project sponsored by the Center. Not only must modern war machines be adapted to the capabilities and limitations

of the human mind and body; the mind and body must also be trained to suit the requirements of modern implements of war. In other words, human engineering is required. For example, what is the optimum size of instrument dials for a pilot or tank crewman in combat? What position provides the best lighting for a navigator or radio operator in flight?

Because no one knew the answers to such questions, the Center, in co-operation with Tufts College Institute for Applied Experimental Psychology, collected the basic information in a *Handbook of Human Engineering Data for Design Engineers.* The book contains invaluable data on the anthropometrics and functional use of the human body, as well as the basic factors influencing vision, hearing, skin sensitivity and motor responses.

Two projects in human engineering are of particular interest to ground troops—one a survey of marksmanship and gunnery training; the other a study of recognition training.

Still other human engineering projects deal with television and motion pictures as training media. Researchers on these projects are trying to determine by analysis and experimentation the means by which television or film instruction can be integrated effectively into military training requirements.

The findings in these and other variegated projects at the Special Devices Center contribute primarily to the effectiveness of our armed forces in combat. But ultimately, the new techniques developed here will be reflected in the efficiency and well being of all those who operate the machines and equipment which assure the continued productivity and industrial greatness of America.

So long as the sea remains the principal avenue of commerce, we shall need a Navy consisting of surface, subsurface and air craft. In no other way can the sea lanes be kept open.

Admiral William M. Fechteler

The Turkish soldier, pledged to defend his homeland, has also volunteered to fight alongside United Nations forces in Korea. **U. S. Army Photograph**

THE TURKISH SOLDIER--FIRST CLASS FIGHTER

R. M. DOBIE

OUT from the khaki ranks standing stiffly at attention on a dusty drill field steps a Turkish private, selected at random for an interview with the American visitor. He has a strong, open face with well-cut features, bright eyes and the clear ruddy skin of a man who has lived close to the soil. Looking the interviewer straight in the eye, he answers the interpreter's questions with quick, frank phrases.

The scene is near Cankiri, Anatolia, Turkey, where recently I faced a company of Turkish infantry soldiers undergoing training at the Turkish Infantry School. To one side are the bleak military barracks. Men in khaki march back and forth over the dusty drill field. Nearby, burros huddle under a lone copse of trees.

For nearly five centuries Turks, like the man confronting me, have been fighting Russians in sporadic wars, except for those rare occasions when diplomacy made them allies to gain a common end. Even then history shows the Russians usually tried to gain advantages at the expense of the Turks. To be armed and in training for possible future battle against the ancient enemy is not new to the Turkish nation; and these men, many of whom come from villages very near the Russian border, have little love for the Russians.

The Turkish soldier gives his name—Nazim Demirtas. He is twenty-two years old and comes from a small village near the town of Ordu about two hundred miles from the Russian border. He is married, the father of one child, and has already served some nine months of his two years of compulsory military training.

Like practically all of the other men in training at the Turkish Infantry School, Nazim has always been accustomed to a frugal, hard way of life. He expects no creature comforts in

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the army and is not disappointed when he receives none. He earns barely enough to cover the cost of coffee or a few packages of cigarettes. He has no pin-up girls over his locker; in fact he has no locker because he has few personal belongings.

When he entered the army, Nazim received one heavy wool uniform consisting of pants and jacket (no shirt or tie), heavy shoes, two pairs of socks, two pairs of undershorts and one undershirt. His head was shaved. If he had been physically or mentally untfit for field duty he would have been assigned to the non-combat functions important to every army. Illiteracy is no bar to military service. However Private Demirtas is a literate soldier, being lucky enough to come from a village that had a school. About 60 percent of the men around him, he says, can read and write and the army teaches the others.

Nazim is a bit puzzled when asked what he does for recreation. He really does not understand the meaning of the word. He says that he and his friends wrestle sometimes. There are no USO shows, no post exchanges, no motion picture theaters. He sleeps whenever he has a bit of free time—which is not often because the training day runs twelve hours or more.

To Nazim all this is not unusual. He worked hard on his parents' farm and he expects to work hard in the army. He answers reveille at 0600, has a breakfast of vegetable soup and thick bread served in a mess kit (no seconds and no coffee). He drills from 0700 to 1130, and at noon has a lunch of beans and rice with chips of meat mixed in. Again he has no coffee but is glad to get a helping of stewed plums for dessert. By 1300 he is back in the field and stays there until 1600. For supper he gets stew, bread and water. He attends class at 1915. Lights go out at 2000 hours.

Neither Private Demirtas nor his companions find anything unusual about all of this, even those who come from different environments. The man in ranks next to him, for example, is a small town merchant in civilian life but takes the rigors of training for granted. His father and grandfather both fought in wars against the Russians.

Private Demirtas' immediate superiors are as rugged and determined as he is. His corporal is twenty-seven years old, a regular army man who already has served nine years. He specializes in communications and can substitute as an anti-tank gunner or as a chauffeur. The first lieutenant in charge of the platoon is a graduate of the *lycee* (high school), was appointed to the Turkish Military Academy in Ankara and graduated

with a commission after three years. He means to make the army his career and his greatest hope is to get a chance to go to Fort Benning in the United States when and if he is promoted to captain. He is better paid than the enlisted personnel but even if some day he reaches the exalted rank of a brigadier general, his pay and allowances will not equal those of a United States captain. And living costs in Turkey are high.

Would Nazim volunteer to fight in Korea and win the coveted red insignia of star and crescent which veterans of Korea wear on their right sleeves? Yes, he would volunteer. He is ready to die for his country. Some American officers who have served with the Turkish forces in Korea have observed that the Turkish soldier is almost too willing to die. Given a hill to hold, Nazim and his companions would die before retreating. He has a somewhat oriental disregard for life; but now he is being taught that often it is better to live and fight for his country rather than to die foolhardily.

How does Nazim feel about the Russians? He answers simply, without hesitation, "I have only contempt for them."

The average Turkish soldier differs from the average American enlisted man in that he is rarely familiar with mechanical contrivances. Young Americans learn to tinker with cars and motors as a matter of course; the average Turk, on the other hand, has never ridden in an automobile, much less taken an engine apart, when he reports for military training. American officers serving with the United States Military Aid Mission in Turkey report that while the Turk learns the fundamentals about as rapidly as the typical American soldier, he is a bit slower in catching on to mechanical procedures and marksmanship. Frequently the Turk takes a week longer than the American to qualify as a marksman. Yet, what the Turk may lack in mechanical aptitude, he makes up in his rugged physique, his ability to endure privation and his will to learn.

Today the Turks are working hard to improve their supply system, to mechanize their forces, to standardize their weapons and training procedures, to streamline their staff system. Their high morale and fighting spirit have proved an inspiration to all free nations.

As one United States Army colonel who knows them well said, "I'm glad these fellows are on our side."

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Prepared by Armed Forces Information and Education Division, Department of Defense

ARMED FORCES INSIGNIA

COMMISSIONED

ARMY	NAVY	AIR FORCE	MARINES
GENERAL OF THE ARMY	FLEET ADMIRAL	GENERAL OF THE AIR FORCE	
GENERAL	ADMIRAL	GENERAL	GENERAL
LIEUTENANT GENERAL	VICE ADMIRAL	LIEUTENANT GENERAL	LIEUTENANT GENERAL
MAJOR GENERAL	REAR ADMIRAL	MAJOR GENERAL	MAJOR GENERAL
BRIGADIER GENERAL	COMMODORE	BRIGADIER GENERAL	BRIGADIER GENERAL

WARRANT

ARMY	NAVY	AIR FORCE	MARINES
CHIEF WARRANT OFFICER	COMMISSIONED WARRANT OFFICER	CHIEF WARRANT OFFICER	COMMISSIONED WARRANT OFFICER W-2 W-3 W-4
WARRANT OFFICER, JUNIOR GRADE	WARRANT OFFICER	WARRANT OFFICER, JUNIOR GRADE	WARRANT OFFICER W-1

ENLISTED

MASTER SERGEANT / FIRST SERGEANT	CHIEF PETTY OFFICER	MASTER SERGEANT	MASTER SERGEANT

Effective 1 April 1952, Air Force enlisted designations were changed as follows: Sergeant to Airman First Class; Corporal to Airman Second Class; Private First Class to Airman Third Class; and Private to Basic Airman.

TURKEY--RAMPART IN THE MIDDLE EAST

TURKEY'S importance to the West in the current international situation manifests itself in a variety of ways. Her political unity, military prowess and strategic geographical position combine to make her an oasis of stability in a section of the world notable for its instability.

Born as a constitutional republic early in the 1920's, Turkey was subject to the single party rule of the People's Republican Party until May 1950 when the Democratic Party was voted into power. Although there are differences between the two parties on domestic issues of statism, religious privileges and others, complete unanimity is found in the field of Turkey's foreign relations.

Turkey has co-operated with the free nations of the world by actively supporting the United Nations. Her early and enthusiastic response to Communist aggression by the dispatch of a brigade to Korea has enhanced her prestige throughout the Western world.

The Turks are a martial people solidly united in accepting two things with resigned inevitability—continued friction with Russia and the resultant necessity for a large standing army watchfully waiting on the borders. Hence the role of the Turkish Army today is identical with that played during World War II—the defense of the homeland.

The courage and dogged determination of the Turkish Army is legendary and its morale may be expected to be at a peak in

any conflict with the traditional enemy, Russia. Many regard Turkey as one of the staunchest allies of the Western nations because Turkey looks back upon a history of conflict with the Muscovite and has girded herself to face the future with realism, grim expectancy and confidence.

Strategically Turkey is an invaluable asset to the West. With the most powerful armed force on the periphery of the Communist world, the Turkish Army protects one of the most valuable and strategic areas of the world. For Turkey forms an effective barrier denying to Russia the realization of traditional aspirations in the Near and Middle East. To the west Turkey lies astride the Dardanelles-Sea of Marmara-Bosporus Straits area to block effectively Russia's only avenue from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean. To the east, the presence of Turkish armed forces near the border of the USSR precludes a cheap and easy domination of the Middle East by the Soviets.

French and German Influences

Early in the Nineteenth Century the Ottoman Empire began to show symptoms which were to mark it as "the Sick Man of Europe." Unsuccessful encounters with the British, French and Russians; the defection and ultimate independence of Greece; the successful rebellion of Mohammed Ali, the Viceroy of Egypt; and the complete obliteration of the Turkish Fleet at Navarino were indications of the approaching demise of the Ottoman State. The Crimean War (1854-1856) and the Russo-Turkish War (1877-1878) led to a continued sapping of the national economy and further reduced the limits of the Empire.

The Turkish Army in the immediate post-Napoleonic period was influenced by the French. Succeeding sultans had hired, principally as advisers, French officers who were veterans of the Napoleonic Wars. The trend toward the hiring of foreign military advisers continued until late in the Nineteenth Century.

The Prussians were the first to send a formal military training mission into Turkey. During a brief vacation in Turkey in 1835, Captain Helmuth Karl Bernhard von Moltke so impressed a confidant of the Sultan that the Prussian general staff approved a Turkish request that his leave be extended to enable the Sultan to benefit by his advice on military matters. Two years later three more officers were sent by the Prussian general staff to aid von Moltke. While there they surveyed parts of the Empire and drew up plans for fortifications and for reorganizing the army. This group remained in Turkey until 1839. It was during

this period, following the dissolution of the Janizaries* in 1826, that conscription with long years of service was introduced into the Turkish military system.

A second German mission was sent to Turkey during the 1870's and from that time until World War I German officers spent intermittent periods in the Turkish Empire modernizing the army, convincing the Turks of the value of Western equipment and westernizing Turkish training methods and tactics. In 1911 the German general, Baron Kolmar von der Goltz, adviser to Sultan Mohammed V, introduced compulsory military training into Turkey. From the 1870's until the arrival of the American Training Mission in 1947, German influence was strong.

The decline of the Ottoman Empire dates from the Russo-Turk War (1768-1774) and the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji (1774). By that treaty, Russia secured free navigation of the Straits for commercial vessels, valuable concessions in the Crimea and, most important, the right to construct a Greek Orthodox church in Galata, suburb of Constantinople. Russia likewise exacted the right to intervene on behalf of the members of this church—a right which became a pretext for Russian intervention in Empire affairs and was a major cause of the Crimean War.

The end of World War I saw the fall of the Ottoman Empire. The Turkish army was disorganized, the economic system was in a state of chaos and the Empire lay in ashes. Under the terms of the Treaty of Sevres (1920) the Straits were internationalized and occupied by the victorious Allies. Thrace, Smyrna and its environs were placed under the control of Greece. The Dodecanese Islands and Rhodes were given to Italy; and the Mediterranean seacoast, including Syria, Palestine and Mesopotamia, came under French and British control. Armenia was set up as an independent state. The new Turkey, retaining Constantinople, was reduced to a small land plot which stretched northeast and northwest from Ankara and bordered on the Black Sea.

Resurgence Under Ataturk

When Mustafa Kemal Ataturk returned from exile and landed at Samsun on the Black Sea coast on 19 May 1919, he found the populace living in misery. Looting and pillaging were wide-

*The Janizaries, originally an elite corps, acted as the personal bodyguard of the Sultan until their deterioration in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries into an ineffectual military force whose influence had become political. Their dissolution became necessary in order to preserve the Sultan's power.

spread and the army, exhausted, unarmed and impotent, was surrounded on all sides except the Caucasus by the victorious Allies. It was the eleventh hour for the Turkish nation and, realizing this, Ataturk decided to act. He organized the Nationalist Party, led it to victory and formed his government in Ankara in November 1919. This Nationalist Government promulgated the National Pact which was to guide the future Turkey. All non-Turkish lands were to be excluded from the new Turkish nation, the Arabs were to decide their own future, the rights of the minorities were guaranteed and the Straits were to be opened to the commerce of all nations only with the consent of the Turkish Government.

Ataturk next attempted to rebuild Turkey by first retaking it. The French, perhaps because they held the fertile Cilicia district, were the first to feel the brunt of his attack. Realizing that the Turks were ill-equipped but a revitalized force fighting once more with their traditional vigor, the French withdrew and contented themselves with Syria. The Italians shortly thereafter lost interest in Antalya and gave the Dodecanese—excepting Rhodes and adjacent islands—to Greece and withdrew. With the exception of the Greek-controlled area, all of Asiatic Turkey had been recovered.

After an abortive attack on the Greek position, which failed because of the hostility of the local Greek populace, Ataturk withdrew to the Ankara area and spent the autumn of 1920 regrouping and resupplying his forces. The terrain surrounding the new Turkish capital at Ankara was excellent for defensive purposes. The Black Sea was to the north and the barren and forbidding Tuz Golü desert to the south. Rail and road communications with the front, which lay between the towns of Eskisehir and Afyon Karahisar, however, were insufficient, forcing the Turks to rely upon pack animals and human labor to supply the fighting forces.

The Greeks, in possession of several Asiatic ports and inlets with road and rail communication to the front, were in a much stronger position. Their forces—reputedly out-numbering the Turks, definitely better equipped and with secure and substantial communication lines—were deployed at Izmit, Bursa and Ushak poised for an attack upon Eskisehir.

Early in 1921 the Greeks attacked Inönü, west of Eskisehir and simultaneously thrust southeast toward the rail junction at Kütahya and Alayunt. Both of these attacks were repulsed. In April they again attacked toward Inönü and Afyon Karahisar.

BULGARIA
BLACK SEA
U.S.S.R.
Ardahan
Kars
Samsun
Adrianople
Istanbul
Bosporus
Erzurum
GREECE
IRAN
MARMARA
Bursa
Ankara
Dardanelles
Eskisehir
TURKEY
AEGEAN SEA
Afyon Karahisar
Izmir (Smyrna)
Adana
Iskenderon
Antalya
Dodecanese
Rhodes
SYRIA
IRAQ
CYPRUS
LATAKIA
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A partial success was achieved at the latter place, but the Turkish general, Ismet Pasha, blunted the Greek attack at Inönü and drove them back.*

During 1921 the situation between the Greeks and the Turks completely reversed itself. The Greeks lost their allies when they rejected an offer of mediation whereas the Turks gained new friends and much valuable stores. The French recognized Turkey and, upon withdrawing, left behind considerable materiel. Italy vacated Antalya in 1921 and in the following year, in a separate treaty, recognized the Turkish state. In 1921 the USSR recognized the new Turkish state and signed a treaty of alliance with her. Disclaiming the taint attached to the Tsarist acquisitions of 1878, Russia voluntarily returned Ardahan and Kars to Turkey, plus the greater part of the province of Batum and also turned over to Turkey a considerable amount of supplies and ammunition. In 1947 the USSR denounced this voluntary action and, in a remarkable display of Communist mental agility, reasserted its territorial claims.

In the meantime the Greeks attacked and overran Eskisehir and Afyon Karahisar, forcing the Turks to retreat to the Sakarya River before Ankara. The scene was being set for a decisive engagement when Kemal Ataturk was named commander in chief of the Turkish forces and the newly restored King of the Greeks, Constantine, arrived at Kütahya to assume personal command. The Greeks attacked and, in a battle lasting three weeks, they advanced to within thirty-five miles of Ankara before being driven back to Eskisehir and Afyon Karahisar. Ataturk, pressing the Greeks further, drove them to Smyrna on the Aegean Sea from where they were evacuated.

Bent upon the complete destruction of the Greek forces, Ataturk arrived at Canakkale where he planned to cross the Dardanelles into Thrace and attack the Greek defenses. The French and Italian forces in this international zone withdrew upon orders from their governments, leaving the British to oppose the Turks. A conference was called between the Turks and the British in October 1922 and the Mudanya Agreement was formulated giving Turkey eastern Thrace and Adrianople. The Treaty of Lausanne and the Straits Convention of 1923, defining the present limits of Turkey and fixing jurisdiction

*Later General Ismet Pasha assumed the surname of Inönü and followed Kemal Ataturk in 1938 to the presidency of Turkey. He served continuously until 1950 and is at present the leader of the opposition party, the People's Republican Party.

over the Straits, were ratified by the Turkish General Assembly shortly thereafter. Out of the remnants of the Seljuk Turkish Empire had arisen the Ottoman Empire and, in similar fashion, the new Turkish state arose from the ashes of the Ottoman Empire in a remarkable display of courage and character.

World War II Period

The Turkish Army prior to and during World War II continued to show the German influence acquired over the years. In 1938 the Army was estimated to number approximately twenty thousand officers and one hundred and seventy-four thousand men, organized into eleven army corps, twenty-three divisions, one armored brigade, three cavalry divisions and seven frontier commands. The gendarmerie, in peacetime charged with maintaining internal security, became an integral part of the army in wartime. It numbered twenty-five to thirty thousand men and was organized into nine mobile battalions plus numerous companies and platoons. It had no air force and the navy was weak. An old German battleship formed the nucleus of the fleet.

With the exception of the professional top layer of officers and a hard core of noncommissioned officers, the Turkish Army consisted overwhelmingly of conscripts. All physically fit males, according to a 1927 draft law, were obliged to serve some time between their twentieth and forty-sixth year for a period which varied from one and a half to three years. Of the one hundred and seventy-five thousand men who yearly came of age, approximately one half were actually conscripted. In time of crisis, all conscriptees could be retained indefinitely, as was the case in the post-World War II army in which some men had served for ten years or more.

The Turkish General Staff was composed of old-time professional officers. It had been fashioned after its German counterpart and the members were thoroughly indoctrinated with German strategy and tactics. German thinking of the World War I era was influential in the Turkish military establishment.

The small arms in the army were of various types and calibers but the basic Turkish rifle since 1890 had been the Mauser. The army had kept abreast of new Mauser developments and had purchased new weapons or had modified existing ones according to new specifications. Although many of the Mausers were new or had incorporated the latest improvements, a great many lacked this modernization. However, during World War II the Turks were reported to have standardized rifle calibers by ship-

ping large quantities to Germany where the barrels were rebored according to a uniform caliber.

Prior to the Adana Agreement (1943) the Turkish Army was equipped primarily with World War I type weapons. The army traveled on foot ahead of its supply train of horse-drawn carts and wagons. The cavalry divisions, being mounted and equipped with small arms, machine guns and other light weapons, were essentially a highly mobile infantry particularly adaptable to the rugged Turkish countryside. The artillery units were equipped with a diversity of pieces imported from Germany, Czechoslovakia, Sweden, Britain, France, Russia and Switzerland. In 1940 these units were reported to be equipped with 75-mm. field guns, 10.5-cm. howitzers and 12-cm. howitzers.

Paramount among the factors contributing to the immobility of the Turkish Army was the underdeveloped communication system of Turkey and the fact that the army was comprised chiefly of infantry type troops. The lack of a first class interior road net and the sparse rail net made quick mobilization and concentration of troops impossible. As a result the Turkish Government throughout World War II had to maintain a large army at its frontiers.

A Turkish cadet demonstrates an English type antitank weapon during training near Ankara. In the background, flame throwers and mortars are demonstrated by their crews. Turkish Information Office Photograph

The life of the average Turkish soldier was exacting. (See "The Turkish Soldier—First Class Fighting Man" in this issue.) A minimum of clothing and pay, coupled with adequate shelter, comprised the Spartan life of the man in uniform. Training was rugged and discipline quick and final. However discipline never became a problem, perhaps because of the innate respect for authority in the Turkish character. The Turkish soldier, both loyal and brave, was indoctrinated from birth to look upon service in the armed forces as a duty which was both honorable and inevitable.

Promotions for officers and noncommissioned officers were slow. To attain noncommissioned status required at least two or three tours of duty. Officers for the regular army were trained at Harbie Mektebi (the Turkish West Point), generally entering that school at the age of fifteen years. Officer promotions proceeded at a pace similar to that of the enlisted men. Two years of service as a junior or third lieutenant were required before acceptance as a full-fledged line officer. An additional fifteen years of service was required before attaining the rank of captain. Duty in a line company, preferably on the frontiers, was necessary for promotion.

Turkey in Brief

POPULATION—approximately 19,000,000. The country is predominantly agricultural with only ten cities of over 50,000 population.

GOVERNMENT—a constitutional republic. Turkey adopted its present constitution on 20 April 1924. All men and women over twenty-two years of age have the right to vote.

AREA—296,503 square miles, slightly larger than Texas.

TOPOGRAPHY—Coastline of 4454 miles on the Black, Mediterranean and Aegean Seas. Land frontier extends 1633 miles bordering Syria, Iraq, Iran and USSR. Eastern part is extremely mountainous, impeding overland travel.

RESOURCES—Wheat ranks first among crops; tobacco is principal agricultural export. Turkey is rich in mineral resources, principally coal and copper; also iron, chromium, manganese, emery, mercury and sulphur.

TRANSPORTATION FACILITIES—Coastal waterways are used extensively. In addition to coast-wise shipping, the country has 4700 miles of railroads and 26,536 miles of highways and roads. Turkey controls the strategic 47-mile long Dardanelles and 18-mile long Bosporus straits, entrance to Russia's vital warm water ports on the Black Sea.

During World War II the Turks, sensing post-war Russian demands, maintained forces in readiness on the borders. Their concern was justifiable since both Stalin and Molotov had openly associated themselves with the formerly denounced Tsarist policy of controlling the Straits. Possession of the Dardanelles, the key to the water route from the Black Sea, by a Turkey supported by strong allies, precludes the building of a large Russian fleet which could easily be bottled up and destroyed. On the other hand, Russian possession of the Dardanelles would relegate Turkey to the status of a satellite. Whether Tsarist or Communist, the Dardanelles question has been a cornerstone of Russian diplomacy for many years.

Indeed Stalin's covetousness with regard to the Balkans, the Dardanelles and other territories was one of the basic reasons for the rupture of the 1939 German-Russian Alliance. Hitler viewed the Balkan area as his own preserve and opposed the acquisition of the Dardanelles by Russia. Thus he attempted to focus Stalin's attention on the Middle East to satisfy Russia's imperialist desires. But Stalin refused to be distracted and continued to press for acquisitions in the Balkans and possession of the Dardanelles. This was one of the factors inducing Hitler to initiate plans for the attack on Russia.

Immediately after the war the Soviet Government demanded that Turkey submit to revision of the Montreux Convention of 1936 and, in addition, surrender Kars and Ardahan in the Trans-Caucasus. The USSR demanded the right to establish military bases in the Straits—equivalent to a Russian occupation. Had Turkey submitted she would have been stripped of defenses both in the west and in the east and brought under Soviet domination. These Russian demands were but the initial phase of Soviet post-war policy designed to bring the entire Middle East, down to the Persian Gulf and beyond, within the Russian orbit.

The Turkish answer was blunt and final—a flat rejection. What the Turks lacked in modern training and equipment, they compensated for in courage, resoluteness and determination. In those dark and uncertain days the Turks unhesitatingly stood firm and girded themselves to defend their homeland.

Aid Program Instituted

American aid became necessary when Great Britain, faced with her own post-war reconstruction, was unable to extend further assistance to Turkey. During World War II the British had supplied the Turks with war materiel and had furnished

instructors in Turkish military training schools. Loss of this aid at a time when Turkey's economy was already severely strained as a result of years of mobilization left the nation in a perilous position.

Following President Truman's request to Congress on 12 March 1947, an appropriation of four hundred million dollars was voted to aid both Greece and Turkey. The purpose of the Turkish aid program was to increase the effectiveness of Turkey's armed forces without greatly increasing her military budget.

Turkish artillerymen prepare to fire against Chinese Communist emplacements on the Korean battlefront. U. S. Army Photograph

In 1947 it was estimated that Turkey had maintained an army of approximately five hundred thousand men on a wartime footing for eight years at a cost of approximately one half her annual national revenue. Most of the army personnel were farmers who had been removed from agricultural pursuits during the war. Their absence resulted in a decline in wheat production below that required for domestic consumption. Through mechanization of the army, thousands of badly needed pack and draft animals could be returned to industry and agriculture. Modernization also would permit a smaller standing army, thereby allowing the release of large numbers of men to civilian pursuits to further boost the economy. These were the broad aims of

the Turkish aid program. A rapid modernization of the Turkish Army would have the dual effect of reviving the economy and of providing Turkey with a smaller, more mobile and stronger force with which to face the Russian colossus to the north. It was bold, ambitious and timely.

Of the four hundred million dollars the Congress had voted to aid Greece and Turkey, roughly one hundred million dollars was earmarked for Turkey. A preliminary survey group was sent to Turkey to determine what was needed. Upon the return of the survey group to the United States, the American Mission for Aid to Turkey (AMAT) was dispatched to assist in the program. AMAT was composed of Army, Navy and Air Force personnel under the command of Lieutenant General (then Major General) Horace L. McBride.

By December 1947 a thin trickle of supplies began to seep into the country. At the outset it was apparent to AMAT that the Turkish logistic system would soon be overtaxed. At the ports-of-call for the equipment-laden ships, American supply methods were established to assist in handling the flow. A general depot supply course was set up to train Turkish Army personnel in receiving, storing and accounting for aid supplies. The language barrier, acute in many ways, presented its first obstacle at the unloading ports. The Turkish language contained no words equivalent to much of the technical and mechanical terminology used to denote the various types of American equipment. It therefore became necessary to formulate a technical Turkish vocabulary which would correspond to American nomenclature.

The United States Public Roads Commission sent several experts to plan and assist in road repair and construction. Five million dollars were set aside to purchase equipment and to defray expenses of American road engineers in that country. Other expenses, including the cost of labor and materials, were assumed by Turkey. The Turkish Government so wholeheartedly supported the road program that Turkey's appropriations for this purpose were doubled.

By the end of 1950 approximately seventeen hundred miles of roads had been completed or were nearing completion. High priority was given to the building of roads in southeastern Turkey and of a highway from Iskenderon (Alexandretta) to Erzurum. Existing Turkish plans call for the construction of additional thousands of miles of road throughout the country in the next few years.

The highway construction program was vital. It facilitated the flow of supplies into the interior, increased the mobility of the army and gave a lift to the Turkish economy.

Recent Military Developments

Before military equipment could be distributed widely to the army, technical and maintenance schools had to be established and existing ones enlarged. Familiarization courses were instituted to train soldiers from the Anatolian countryside in the operation and maintenance of the new mechanized materiel.

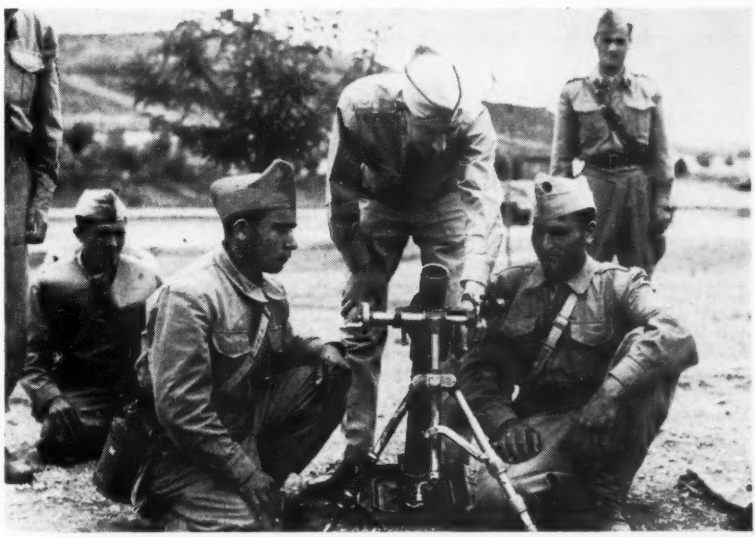
The Turks patterned their military schools along the lines of those in the United States. Basic changes in courses, expansion and reorganization of staffs and faculties and an extensive building program followed. The first officers to pass a course in the operation of the 90-mm. gun were detailed as instructors in newly established training centers. Soon armor, signal and communications schools were established; and throughout 1948 additional courses in motor transport, infantry, ordnance, antiaircraft, field medical service, ammunition storage and maintenance were offered in Turkish military schools.

During 1949 work was begun at the Turkish Artillery School on a dictionary of military terms in an attempt to standardize terminology—a difficult task because the Turkish language was in a state of flux. Under the Republic a complete revision of the Turkish alphabet had been undertaken. The Latin alphabet was substituted for the Arabic formerly in use. As a result many additions were being made to the Turkish vocabulary and words formerly in use became outmoded. Needless to say this was a source of much trouble in solving the difficult job of standardizing American-Turkish terminology. Interpreters, draftsmen, typists and translators were combed from the countryside and assigned the task of translating American field manuals and technical regulations into the Turkish language and of preparing training courses and programs.

American officers in the Turkish Artillery School were former instructors at Fort Sill and Fort Bliss. They filled the dual roles of instructors at the School and advisers to the tactical units. The training given the Turks was patterned after the American World War II type, which was designed to produce the greatest amount of trained personnel in the shortest amount of time. An increasing number of Turkish students have trained in the United States at Forts Belvoir, Eustis, Bliss, Leavenworth, Benning, Sill and Knox.

Although the Turks wear the battle dress of the British, the majority of their equipment is American. It was reported in April 1950 that 75 percent of the artillery was of American manufacture, including many light antiaircraft weapons.

The Grand National Assembly of Turkey on 1 July 1949 took a sizable step in the modernization of the Turkish military organization by merging the Turkish General Staff and the Ministry of National Defense. This step has streamlined the World War I German concepts after which the Turkish General Staff policies had been fashioned. AMAT suggested further revisions in personnel administration and tactical reorganization. These suggestions involved the adoption of American methods of induction and classification and necessitated the establishment of additional induction centers, physical aptitude examinations, a system of personnel files, and the staggering of annual conscript quotas over three or four induction periods each year. Thus, in a few short years Turkey has attempted to span the gap between the Nineteenth Century and the present. The ease, eagerness and aggressiveness with which they have accomplished the transition has been a source of wonderment and satisfaction to the American military mission.



An American officer instructs Turkish soldiers in the use of the 60-mm. mortar, one of the weapons furnished under the United States military assistance program. Turkish Information Office Photograph

With the entrance of Turkey into the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, the capability of the West to resist Communist encroachment has been strengthened considerably. The traditional Turkish suspicion of and hatred for the Muscovite impels her to resist any Russian advance with exceptional fierceness.

The future of the Turkish Army looms as a bright light in a dimly illuminated corner of the world. In an area characteristically unstable, the rapid emergence of Turkish military might has not merely given new hope to the people of that area but has proportionally increased the defensive capabilities of the West. The Turkish spirit, courage, and determination are exemplary. The valor of the Turkish brigade in Korea caused an American officer to remark that "the Turkish soldier is an implacable foe of Communism and is capable of a durability and ferocity that is hard to match." This observation is particularly pertinent when, as late as 25 May 1951, President Truman speaking of the Middle East, said, "No part of the world is more directly exposed to Soviet pressure." The indomitable spirit of Turkey has so far withstood this pressure and gives every indication of a growing ability to withstand even more. The Turkey of today stands unflinchingly with the West—a rampart of determination in the Middle East.

Despite the tremendous forces to the north, modern Turkey does not fear Soviet Russia. The Turks have fought for freedom many times in the past—and if the chips are down they are ready to fight again. I am convinced the Turk is as good a soldier as exists in the world. The Turks refuse to give up ground, or lose their weapons, and they take their bayonet fighting seriously.

Major General William H. Arnold
Chief, Joint American Military Aid Mission to Turkey

OUR ARMED FORCES IN ICELAND

BRIGADIER GENERAL E. J. McGAW

THE month of May 1952 marks the first anniversary of the return to Iceland of United States defense forces. One year ago the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), at the request of Iceland, asked the United States to send troops to Iceland to protect this strategic island outpost that lies on the northern flank of the NATO defense of Western Europe and astride the North Atlantic air and sea communications between North America and Europe. By insuring the security of Iceland from Communist aggression, NATO thus strengthens its plan to deter the outbreak of war, or to win a war if it must occur.

Since Iceland is a member of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, the Agreement of 5 May 1951 was arranged on the recommendation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization members for the purpose of using facilities in Iceland for the common defense of the Treaty Area.

Initial components of a unified command known as the Iceland Defense Force arrived two days later, on 7 May 1951, at the International Airport at Keflavik, Iceland, by Navy airlift from the United States. The supporting supplies were delivered by Military Air Transport Service during the next few days.

This landing marked the second appearance of American military personnel in Iceland. For over a thousand years, the people of Iceland have stood for peace, never having supported an armed force or having built fortifications of any kind.

The preamble of the Iceland Agreement significantly explains both the need and the purpose of the establishment of a military garrison in this strategically important country. A portion of the preamble reads: "Having regard for the fact that the people of Iceland cannot themselves adequately secure their own defenses, and experience has shown that a country's

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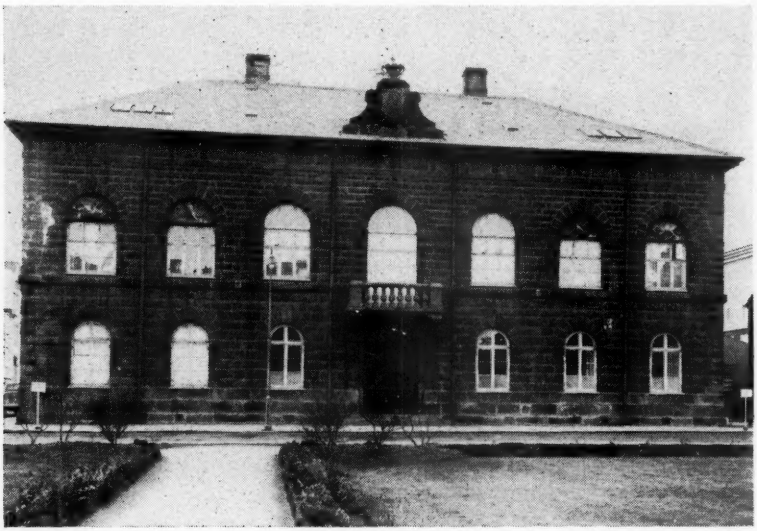
BRIGADIER GENERAL E. J. McGAW, USA, is serving with the Department of the Navy and on duty with the Commander in Chief Atlantic as the Unified Commander of the Iceland Defense Force.

lack of defenses greatly endangers its security and that of its peaceful neighbors, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization has requested, because of the unsettled state of world affairs, that the United States and Iceland, in view of the collective efforts of the parties to the North Atlantic Treaty to preserve peace and security in the North Atlantic Treaty Area, make arrangements for the use of facilities in Iceland in defense of Iceland and thus also the North Atlantic Treaty Area."



The world's oldest parliament, which first met in 930 A. D., sits in the Althing House, Reykjavik. U. S. Army Photograph

Provisions for execution of the Agreement included (1) that Iceland provide for such facilities as are mutually agreed to be necessary in Iceland; (2) that Iceland will make all acquisitions of land and arrangements to permit entry upon and use of such facilities without cost to the United States; (3) that the actual size of the defense force shall be determined in agreement with Iceland; and (4) that nothing within the Agreement shall be so construed as to impair the authority of Icelanders with Icelandic affairs. The agreement further arranged for the termination of the Keflavik Agreement of 1946, and contained certain provisions for future cancellation of the new Agreement by either party.

The plan was broadly and most specifically conceived by the members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization and it was

at their suggestion, and by invitation of the Republic of Iceland through the United States Department of State, that the execution of the Icelandic operation was charged to the Department of Defense. Actually the Joint Chiefs of Staff designated the Chief of Naval Operations as their executive agent; he in turn designated the Commander in Chief, United States Atlantic Fleet (CINCLANTFLT), a Unified Commander, to implement the operation. CINCLANTFLT then established Iceland as a Unified Command under CINCLANT, and charged its Commander (COMICEDEFOR) with the security of Iceland and its key facilities.

The Iceland Defense Force thus has a unified headquarters with a staff composed of Army, Navy and Air Force personnel. Various components of the Force currently consist of Naval sea and air detachments, a number of Army troops and an Air Base Group with affiliated organizations.

The over-all responsibility for the development of the International Airport at Keflavik, both as an international airport and a military air base, has been delegated jointly to the Icelandic Government for civilian traffic and to the Commander, Military Air Transport Service, for military traffic.

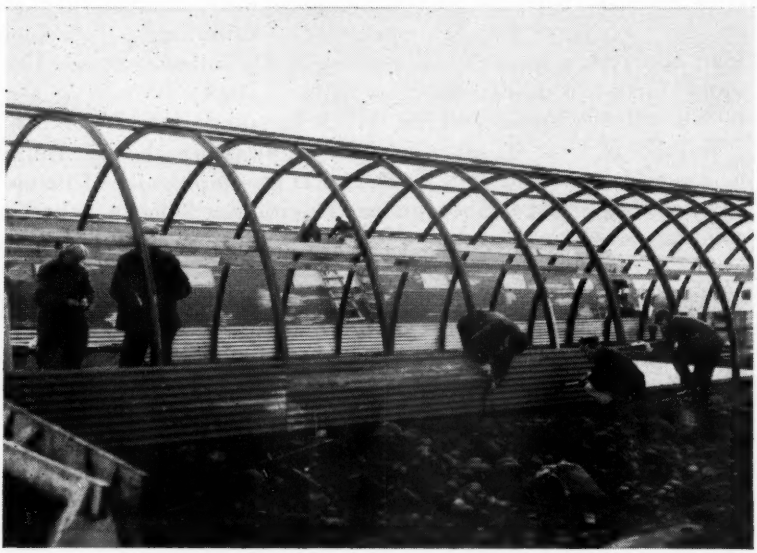
The Headquarters staff and most components of the Iceland Defense Force are currently stationed at Keflavik Airport on the Reykjanes Peninsula on the southwestern tip of Iceland. Keflavik, a level lava plain excellently suited to flying, lies some thirty-five miles southwest of Reykjavik, the seat of the Icelandic Government and the largest in population of its cities.

Iceland is located approximately midway on the air route between Moscow and New York and is geographically of prime strategic importance. Recognizing the vital need for an Atlantic stepping stone to Europe, a similar group of United States armed forces arrived in Iceland ten years ago also at the request of Iceland and by agreement between the two governments.

That date, July 1941, less than six months before Pearl Harbor, presaged an era in which the scope of American naval operations and Army aviation sorties grew to unprecedented size with the progression of World War II.

United States recognition of the importance of this outpost was manifested by the defense agreement of 1 July 1941. This provided for the establishment of American troops in Iceland to relieve the British who were sorely needed elsewhere and who had undertaken the protection of the country after the Nazi invasion of Norway.

First troops of the Iceland Defense Force arrive with their commander, General McGaw, at Keflavik Airport. U. S. Army Photograph



Construction at Keflavik is carried on at a rapid pace, with Icelandic contractors erecting Quonset huts. U. S. Army Photograph

The American forces, at the termination of World War II, departed from Iceland in accordance with the agreement of 7 October 1946. This agreement set forth the conditions under which the Keflavik Airport, constructed by the United States in 1942 and one of the principal military airfields in the North Atlantic area, would be turned over to Iceland but giving the United States the right to operate the airport for use in support of its control agencies in Germany. Accordingly the United States Government designated an American aviation company, a subsidiary of American Overseas Airlines, to operate the airport. This company, and later Lockheed Aircraft Overseas Corporation, utilizing both American and Icelandic personnel, operated an international civil airport until 1 September 1951. On that date full responsibility for the civil aspects of operations at the Keflavik Airport was given to the Icelandic Government. Control of military operations was taken over by the United States, in accordance with the United States-Iceland Agreement which terminated the earlier Keflavik Agreement. The airport has been used extensively by United States and foreign commercial carriers since 1947.

Other than the airfield, there was little available for the initial troops of the Iceland Defense Force when they arrived at Keflavik a year ago. Facilities there had been in use by the civil aircraft corporation and were consequently somewhat the worse for wear. The Quonset huts, built by the Americans during the war and widely scattered around the airfield and vicinity, had either been moved away for use as barns or warehouses or they had deteriorated in the severe weather to the point that rehabilitation for occupancy was impossible.

The extensive telephone net that had been constructed during World War II had either been abandoned to disintegrate from lack of maintenance in the rigorous climate or had been made a part of the domestic net of communications. There were few vehicles of any kind other than those left over from World War II. Though decrepit, they were a credit to their manufacturers and maintenance mechanics.

Living quarters were mended; huts, many of which had long been abandoned to the elements, were made habitable. Several apartment houses, hitherto occupied by civilian employees and their families, were made available to the military by the return to the United States of their former occupants. Since those first days building materials have been received, new construction has begun, transportation is improving.

Progress has been made but under difficulties because of the lack of appropriated funds and the absence of established logistic procedures for the Iceland area.

The period during which American forces were stationed in Iceland, both prior to and during World War II, was marked by friendly relationships between the two countries. However, the mere presence of American troops on foreign soil creates problems which, while not unique to Iceland, are nevertheless to be added to those related specifically to the matter of defense.

The presence of troops, most particularly in Iceland, calls for the utmost diplomacy. Intensely nationalistic, extremely proud of their venerable civilization and culture, natural isolationists, many Icelanders understandably are somewhat reluctant to accept members of the armed forces of any nation within their country even though we are here for their protection as well as our own. Comprehension of even the most minor of the issues from which American and Icelandic relations evolve is imperative and constant tact and vigilant promptness are required to meet each incident. The assorted problems of supply, planning, housing, must be worked out with the various services plus both Icelandic and American civilians.

Among the steps taken for welfare of troops, policies for unusually short tours have been approved. Provisions to permit housing for dependents are being urged. A regular leave policy enabling the forces to visit the Continent is under study and may be possible as transportation is made available. Service clubs for enlisted men, noncommissioned officers and officers, larger recreational halls and facilities and, above all, new living quarters, as comfortable as budgets and materials will permit, are currently being erected.

Twice within a decade the United States Armed Forces have been invited to Iceland. Their presence in time of peace is of unquestioned political value to the United States and, in time of war, a military necessity. However intricate the problems to the American and to the Icelander, both realize that the benefits are mutual. The defense arc has been necessarily well extended in the North Atlantic.

RED CHINA'S FIGHTING HORDES

LIEUTENANT COLONEL ROBERT B. RIGG

IV—Training an Illiterate Army

MANY printed leaflets fluttered to the snowy ground in Korea during that winter. At night, shadowy Chinese figures would surreptitiously pick them up and tuck them into hiding places until daylight. The curiosity of these men was heightened when they saw the familiar characters of their own language printed on the leaflets. But what did the printed characters mean?

In the winter of 1950-51 in Korea, our army shot and bailed out tons of safe-conduct or surrender passes, only to find that these documents were not succeeding in their purpose as they did in Europe. Later in the conflict, the reason became more apparent. The Chinese Reds form the world's largest army of illiterates and semi-illiterates.

The Communist leaders are now launching a "large scale attack" on illiteracy. The army is reported to be a huge school. Actually it is not, but it has made a beginning.

The new program started informally when several divisions,

This is the fourth of a series of articles condensed from Red China's Fighting Hordes, *by Lieutenant Colonel Robert B. Rigg; 350 pages, $3.75.* *Copyright 1951 by The Military Service Publishing Company, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. This article may not be reprinted, as a whole or in part, without permission of the publishers. The opinions expressed are those of the author and do not necessarily represent official views of the Department of Defense or any of its agencies.*

which were relieved of campaign duties, began in July 1949 to devote five hours a week to the elementals of reading and writing. By November 1949 the school time was raised to twelve hours weekly. Preliminary examinations in the spring of 1950 reportedly showed that in five months the average soldier had mastered three hundred and seventy characters. In one artillery regiment an average of six hundred characters was attained.

At present, where it can be implemented, the educational project within the army calls for thirty-one hours of general education a week, or 70.2 percent of the weekly study period. The rest of the time is devoted to military and political subjects.

In August 1950 the Communists estimated that by the autumn of 1952 every soldier will have received a full elementary education. The Chinese decision to enter the war in Korea has obviously blocked a good portion of this program which, as planned in 1950, foresaw a full secondary education in the next five years for all commanding personnel.

Until this ambitious program is completed, every eight or twelve soldiers who cannot read must take up the time of an officer or noncommissioned officer who can; for the present system requires Chinese Red troops be indoctrinated daily, not only in the over-all Communist line but also in current events. It is natural that the Reds conceive that the soldiers must be brought to a level of education where they can ferret out their own news from such Communist-slanted publications as *Fighter's Companion*. The Communists want soldiers who can read newspapers and noncommissioned officers and officers who can read orders intelligently. There are reams of propaganda to be absorbed also!

The question arises as to what the soldier will get from this education program. He will be taught in these abbreviated courses to read and to write some; but he will not be overburdened with mathematics, nor will he labor in physics or chemistry. Hygiene will be stressed, for the Communists want to eliminate if they can the filth and fleas that abound in China. Instruction in history will begin with heavy emphasis on the Long March and the Long Struggle; then it will swing to the evil doings of the capitalists in the Orient and elsewhere. Geography will be local in scope; the land masses of China, Russia and India will more than give soldier-students a full dose of this subject. Southeast Asia will be treated as the land of oppressed peoples; Japan as the home of the hated invaders and America as the realm of the "Paper Tiger."

This makes two non-military programs in which the army is now required to participate—education and national labor. The army is working long and hard—so much so that, in some regions, language learning is being combined with either military work or actual labor. Instead of classrooms some units, which are busily engaged in civilian production, study their simple lessons in the fields, on the roads or on the levees and dikes which they are repairing. The Communists have devised a system in which two characters (words) are written on slips of paper; these are stuck on near-by objects so that soldiers may learn as they work. The characters are also written in chalk on sticks of wood, which are stuck into the baskets of dirt or produce. Large cloth banners may be erected between two poles in the fields, to keep before soldier eyes the two characters which the trooper is required to learn each day. Walls and buildings which are near labor details of soldiers are also painted with words. This system is typical of the Communist approach to a problem. The army must learn but it must also labor.

What will be the effect of all this energy directed towards educating many millions of soldiers? Most of them will not be given too much to absorb, but they will learn certain characters which have significance in military parlance. There is an element of propaganda in the program. The government will make much to-do over the benefits of such training. The troops will feel they are, at least, learning one thing in the army that will benefit them in civilian life—if they ever get out of service. The secondary schooling will probably do the most good, for it will advance those noncommissioned officers and officers who already have a basis of education. These men will learn to read and write China's difficult language to an extent beneficial to the army—and this the army needs badly.

China linguistically is a disunited nation and the Communists are decades away from a solution of the problem. The problem is a national one, but right now the differences in dialect are a definite handicap to the modernization of the army. The men of one region must be instructed and trained by those knowing their dialect. These men can be transferred to armies and units other than their regional ones, but there are many impractical aspects to this. In the more advanced technical and specialized training, the soldiers from the south, southwest and west will be out of dialectical key with the armies in more centralized establishments of the north and east. What will be the results in the army? First, the northerners, because they speak Mandarin or

near-Mandarin, will dominate and furnish the bulk of the army's higher leaders. Second, the non-Mandarin speaking groups will probably supply men mostly for labor service and such. Third, there will tend to be units regional in character because of a common dialect; and if the Chinese Reds lean at all in the direction of the Soviets on this issue, they will not greatly favor the organization of units on such a basis.

The Labor Pains of Military Training

This army is smug about feeling it is well trained. It launched into its attack on us in Korea on the assumption that it knew all about fighting a big war and was trained for one. But it is not. However, its masses, so regularly and deliberately committed to bloody death, compensate for training deficiencies.

The army lacks mechanics—airplane and motor vehicle—truck drivers, tank gunners, artillerymen, radio operators, navigators and pilots. These and other technical slots are being filled by a variety of personnel, ranging from inducted students who are being trained for such jobs to ex-Nationalists who will hold their positions for a period. The manpower is available. It can be culled from the best fitted but the army is having its problems. The human material for good mechanics, for example, is in short supply. While industrialization in China has only begun, it has its priority in selection of the machine-skilled. Thus, the problem of modernization narrows down to how fast and how well technical and specialist personnel can be trained.

The Soviets are helping with the technical training program now getting under way in the People's Liberation Army (PLA). But these "big brothers," as the Communists say they call them, do not all speak Chinese and very few Chinese troops can understand a Russian. However, help is being given here but mainly in the fields of radar and aviation. The army, in the main, is having to stand on its own feet and train its soldiers slowly in the jobs of handling motors, machines, radios and big guns. Meanwhile it is giving rough treatment and poor care to its battered vehicles. But they will run for a while even with poor care. They will be wired together, for the Chinese are adept at improvisation and at nursing clanking vehicles. But it takes lengthy instruction and constant discipline to make Chinese soldiers look under trucks and tighten the bolts before they drop off.

A Chinese soldier does not have to be able to read in order to be taught how to drive a tank. The mechanics can rely on a clerk to read the spare parts catalog and make up requisitions.

The armor noncommissioned officer may not be able to read the field manuals but his officer can impart much tactical information to him through charts and diagrams. The Reds are finding a way. The tanks and the bigger guns have crews which can drive and shoot. There are some men who can repair damaged machines and instruments. New men, without any education, are being trained for jobs they never dreamed of holding. But the essential point is that all of the technical training takes longer in the PLA than it does in Western armies.

The training emphasis is mainly on infantry. While certain Chinese troops are undergoing armor training, probably they will not be given advanced training in armor-infantry co-operation and techniques before being committed to action. Commanders who have never handled any amounts of armor and artillery cannot successfully learn the advanced techniques and higher tactics in a short space of time. Quite probably the Soviets realize this and are restraining the Chinese from trying to utilize too much modern equipment.

The air force, under the most direct Soviet tutelage, is training and growing separately from the army. It is receiving priorities in selection of personnel.

Military Training in the Lower Units

The training is tough and the training day is long. Only Sundays, theoretically, have been free from specific military activity. It is the hard training they receive that molds the Red Chinese into good fighters.

The emphasis for the majority of troops is on the use of rifles, bayonets and grenades, with marching and discipline paramount. The men must know how to march long, march rapidly and march well. This means practice, and it is rugged. Little time is as yet devoted to regular parade ground drill. Red troops drill by marching in the country, not on a drill area.

Considering that the rifle is the primary weapon of the Chinese Red Army, the Chinese soldier is a poorly trained marksman. This is mainly the result of ammunition shortages. Aside from the general shortage of ammunition for training, there is always the problem of the variety of gun calibers. Some riflemen will receive training and limited target practice with a particular weapon because, locally, that is the only one for which there is stocked any amount of ammunition. However, the soldier may go into combat with the Gimo rifle after he has had target practice with a Springfield.

I hesitate to generalize on the basis of my limited experience, more than to say this about Chinese shooting: I do not think their aim is very accurate at long ranges. It was my observation that they prefer to open fire at ranges below four hundred yards. However, hits by Chinese bullets, aimed or not, can kill.

Grenades the soldier must handle well, for his belt will always be loaded with these small "potato-mashers." If he can toss one twenty yards his throwing is acceptable; if he can throw it thirty-five yards he is in for a commendation.

The PLA has a proclivity for the use of land mines and may resort to an even more extensive use of these weapons in the future. The arsenals of China are not tooled for turning out large guns in any quantity, but they can be equipped for the mass manufacture of land mines and booby traps.

> PLA noncommissioned officers are tough little men, with loud voices and an exaggerated sense of their importance in the scheme of things. Almost without exception they are Communist Party members. Almost every noncommissioned officer has participated in combat to some degree. They are close to their men; a good portion of them have been elected to their positions by the soldiers. Swaggering and hand waving, they make every soldier's business their business. They are excellent leaders and few soldiers choose to argue with them. They pack a lot of authority and are well backed up. This makes an army.

In military training, the infantry companies are broken up into small groups—the recruits or less experienced men undergoing basic training, the older men undergoing various stages of advanced instruction. Training schedules vary from company to company but can be said to fit loosely into the master schedules put out by the armies.

The subjects range from attack of strong points to use of weapons. This type of training has strong impact, for it is given by men who have actually stormed strong points or used the weapons in combat. Rarely are any texts referred to in preparation of this training for the "small instructors" know their subjects from practical experience. Much of the squad training is conducted informally and without prearranged plan. The squad leader is allowed to pick his subject in order to strengthen his unit on weak points. Within the squad the Reds have the mutual help system of instruction which is also informal and is aimed at improving individual weak points.

The soldiers as a whole are taught by the conventional system

of demonstration, application and practice; but many million man-hours of soldier eye-strain are saved because the troops do not have to read books or charts. Some can, but it is incumbent on the instructors to recite the texts and the labels so they can be absorbed by ear. The PLA is finding that modern charts and visual aids are short steps in comparison with older techniques. The army is making wide use of these, borrowing heavily from American training methods—but not admitting it.

Field manuals are still somewhat varied and very scarce. There are translations of various United States Army ones but before use these have to be purged and doctored to fit Communist theories. The United States manuals most in use are those which pertain to weapons. Soviet manuals on tactics are much in evidence, but here, too, the Chinese believe in applying their own experience and ideas first and foremost.

Ex-Nationalist noncommissioned officers and technicians are rather prominent in instructor roles, especially in tanks, artillery, bazookas, motor vehicles and related items of American heavier equipment with which they have had experience. The English-reading ones are also busy translating United States field and technical manuals into Chinese texts for use in military training. They also speak before units on United States tactics.

The Communists have a few ex-Nationalist officers who have attended United States Army and Air Force service schools, including the Command and General Staff College at Fort Leavenworth. Some of these officers, while not in command positions with the PLA, are in advisory staff positions. For the sake of their own skins they are doing a good job of interpreting American military ways, tactics and techniques. After a period of a few years these officers will be purged, in one form or another; but for the present they have a degree of influence on Communist military training.

Military Academies Mold Men Politically

Informed sources estimate that 70 percent of the junior officers in the PLA are practically without any formal education and are completely lacking in formal military education. But they are good officers. Combat-wise and campaign-hardened, they know how to lead their men in maneuver and combat. Project them fifteen years into the future and they will be good regimental commanders; but would they be the materials for higher staffs and commands? The Communists do not think so, although they expect that a few will emerge.

To bring this particular cross-section of officers up to par in the future, the Chinese Reds are giving special attention to a talented few and are culling the ranks for the politically reliable. These will be given training in China, and some in the USSR—training which will fit them for promotion to higher responsibilities. This is an interim measure to correct present deficiencies; but the PLA's high command is looking ahead. A new generation of generals is beginning and these young men are being sent to formal military-political academies in Shanghai, Nanking, Peking, Harbin and other cities.

Entrance to the military-political academies is by competitive examination, and those young men who have already memorized a part of Communism's creed will be given favorable consideration. Those who cannot now answer the political questions with accuracy might well wipe off their slabs of ink and dry their brushes. Initial selection is based more on political reliability than on mental ability. The enlisted ranks are favored as a source of students and are encouraged to compete; the loyalty of these Red "heroes" can be measured in the foot-miles of campaigns completed and the wounds received.

What sort of junior officers will these academies graduate? The word "political" has not been casually inserted in the title of the new academies. These institutions are actually more political than military in curriculum. Their object is to produce politically reliable leaders first; militarily talented ones second. The pink-cheeked young men who now receive their diplomas will be devoted to the cause that educates them. The academy commissars will watch over the future cadets for their political interest and enthusiasm. The reports of the commissars will have more influence on the decision to graduate a cadet than will the cadet's own military grades.

The courses are rugged, the cadet life austere and the bunks hard. The old Red militarists remember with disgust how some of the cadets in their days at the Whampoa Military Academy came to the parade ground in rickshaws. There will be none of this in the Red schools.

Unlike the military academies of Western nations which give courses ranging up to four years, China's academies are presently requiring cadet attendance for only one or two years. Red officer schools of the past graduated junior officers in semi-formal courses at the end of eight months.

Today, within the short span of a year and a half, Chinese cadets are taught three main essentials—politics, discipline and

the basic elements of military science. Discipline receives great stress and is second in emphasis only to political training. By our standards, the cadets are emerging weak in military science, but they are well grounded in the elementals of the subject.

If the campaign-hardened faculties of these academies achieve no other objective than to mold the cadets politically, they are satisfied. These officers, many lacking in any extensive formal education, are not going to let their students rest too long in the classrooms of military science alone. The idea still prevails (because they did it) that officers learn most about war from war. To confine cadets for four years in academies is at present considered a poor idea. Get them out with the troops and let them learn proper officer-enlisted man relationships as the PLA views them. Besides, young officers are presently needed.

One of the projects receiving the highest priority right now is the establishment of military medical colleges. Several already have been established and are turning out "doctors" at the fastest possible rate. Again the militarists are having to take short-term measures to compensate for interim deficiencies. What the military needs, and needs quickly, are military doctors who can wrap bandages, apply splints, cauterize wounds, cut away dead flesh and amputate limbs. The refinements of medicine and surgery will have to wait.

Indoctrination—Always Indoctrination

The big question about China's Red Army has been, and is, "How does it manufacture the automatons that march so willingly to mass slaughter?" The Communist answer is "political indoctrination and discipline"; the Western answers to the question are many. We seem unwilling to believe that political indoctrination is so strong and so effective. On that point we must change our minds. Recent history and present events are set neatly before us. The conclusion that political indoctrination has effective impact is inescapable. But, like radiation, political indoctrination will stick to some objects longer than to others and will also dissipate itself without additional doses.

The Communists do not give their troops a single indoctrination lecture and then march them off with the naive assumption that this does the trick. No, they pound home the political and ideological themes until many of the troops know the Communist line by heart. Indoctrination and political training are daily measures in the PLA, no matter how simple or repetitious the message. Repeat and repeat—by rhythm and redundancy—

the Marxist-Maoist line. Military training time often is sacrificed to non-military labor but political training periods are rarely ever sacrificed to other jobs or interests. The early morning and late evening hours are periods for the daily ritual of indoctrination. The first morning hours in the army are "sacred" to the commissars and other political preachers who consistently lead their flocks before the Red altars—with their ever-present pictures of Mao and Stalin.

Like so much that the leaders do, this training is conducted along simple lines and the political pills are sugar-coated with such devices as group singing and plays. The propaganda varies in theme. It is not all abstract. The Communists cleverly build up cases which play on the emotions. Someone is to be hated; some nation is to be pictured as a threatening power so that the soldiers and the people will not question why there is so large an army. Spies, guerrillas, the "wily, blood-sucking rich, the brutal landlords"—the soldier is made to feel that he protects himself and his family from many threats. Always threats! People are plotting; nations are plotting! "We must watch," says the commissar. "Our nation must be prepared. We have been enslaved—now we are free." And so it goes like rain on a roof, dulling their simple minds to all but the rain. "The roof is leaking—the storm threatens to grow worse—we must protect ourselves—we, in uniform, protect the people!"

Measured as a whole, the men in the army are held together by a variety of controls and devices, of which political indoctrination is a significant but not necessarily a lasting one. If measures are taken to destroy the propaganda myths, or if war losses are sustained at the 1951 ratio over a long period, the army will start to crack apart. However, given a few more years in which to instill one political and propaganda theme and given any significant military successes, the army of Red China is going to become increasingly harder to defeat. The army as it now stands has its soldiers who are beet-red all through; but also it has many whom the people accurately call "radishes—red outside and white inside." The next generation of soldiers will be well-cultivated "beets."

The Monitor and the Merrimac

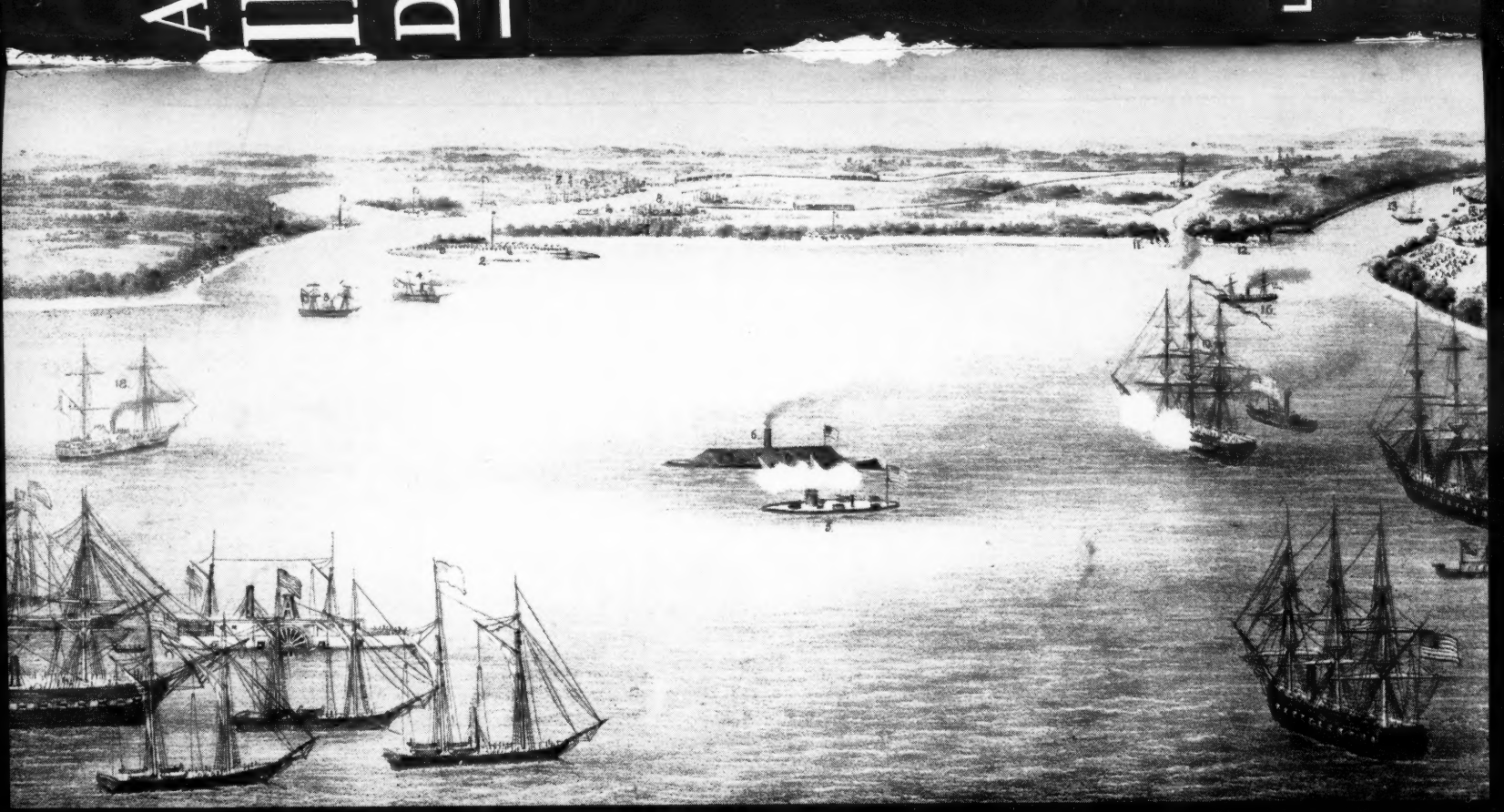
Ninety years ago, on 8 March 1862, a group of Union vessels huddled together for protection off Fortress Monroe, Virginia, as the Confederate iron-clad, the *Merrimac*, steamed into Norfolk harbor. There was grave concern. Was this new weapon invincible? The answer to the question would be learned the next day with the arrival of the Union craft, the *Monitor*, which was hastily dispatched to intercept her.

In early 1861 the Norfolk Navy Yard had been destroyed to prevent its falling into Confederate hands and the former United States steam frigate *Merrimac*, her engines beyond repair, was scuttled. Confederate engineers had raised the hull, cut her down almost to the water's edge and built on it a casemate with sloping sides plated with bars of iron four inches thick. The vessel, rechristened the *Virginia*, nevertheless continued to be known popularly as the *Merrimac*. Her armament consisted of ten guns and a formidable iron ram. Slow in speed and drawing twenty-two feet of water, she was extremely clumsy in movement.

The keel of the *Monitor* was laid in October 1861 and the completed vessel turned over to the Government in February 1862. Although also heavily armored, her draft was less than half that of the *Merrimac*. Her armament comprised two eleven-inch guns inclosed in a revolving turret. Because of her peculiar turret and her decks practically awash, she was nicknamed "the cheesebox on a raft."

The famous encounter of 9 March between the *Monitor* and *Merrimac* lasted four hours. Both vessels exchanged a furious cannonade without inflicting appreciable damage. The duel, much of it at point-blank range, was strangely futile. The poor quality cast-iron shot of the *Monitor* and the shells of the *Merrimac* proved equally ineffective against each other's armor. Finally, the *Merrimac's* gunners struck the *Monitor's* pilot house, blinding her captain who then directed the ship to shallower water. Fearing the ebbing tide of the Elizabeth River, the Confederate captain steered the *Merrimac* to Norfolk. Thus ended the first engagement in history between two armored naval vessels. A new era in sea warfare had begun.

The sketch on the back cover is by Charles Worrel from a collection in the Library of Congress.



The Naval Engagement Between the Merrimac and the Monitor

Hampton Roads, Virginia, 9 March 1862